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Burnside at Fredericksburg, Dec. 13, 1862.

THE HISTORY OF OUR COUNTRY

FROM THE DISCOVERY OF . . . . AMERICA TO THE PRESENT TIME

INCLUDING A COMPREHENSIVE HISTORICAL INTRODUCTION, COPIOUS ANNOTATIONS, A LIST OF AUTHORITIES AND REFERENCES, ETC.

PROFUSELY AND BEAUTIFULLY ILLUSTRATED, MAPS, CHARTS, PORTRAITS, FAMOUS HISTORIC SCENES AND EVENTS, AND A SERIES OF BEAUTIFUL POLYCHROMATIC PLATES

By EDWARD S. ELLIS, A. M.

AUTHOR OF "THE STANDARD HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES," "YOUNG PEOPLE'S HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES," "THE ECLECTIC PRIMARY HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES," ETC.

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INDIANAPOLIS, IND.

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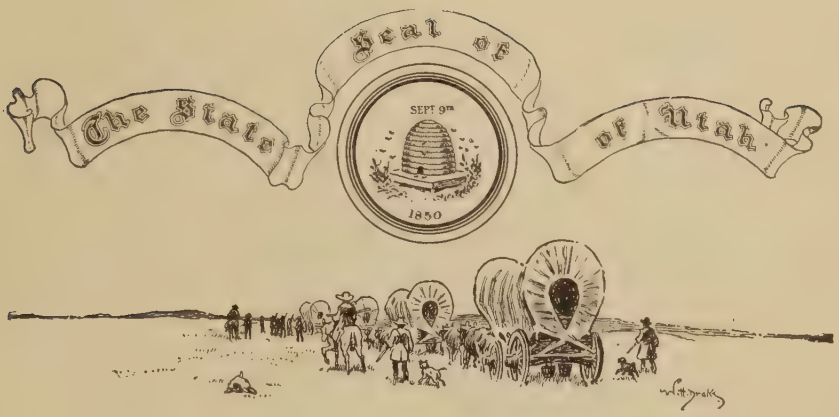

CHAPTER LXXXII

GARFIELD AND ARTHUR'S ADMINISTRATIONS
1881–1885

[*Authorities:* In this chapter will be found a very minute account of the Greely expedition to the Polar regions. The reader may very naturally ask why large sums of money should be expended and many lives imperilled in exploring the icy horrors about the pole. The only reason we have ever heard for these efforts is the desire for accurate geographical knowledge. There is perhaps another cause even more powerful in determining human action,—a certain divine interest and curiosity,—a yearning to overcome difficulties. Longfellow depicts this quality of man very strikingly in his "Excelsior." The political struggle for the Presidency related in this chapter furnishes an illustration of the fickleness of people in large masses. The "Rum, Romanism, and rebellion" incident shows how large and intelligent bodies of people are swayed and dominated by catchwords. Herbert Spencer would probably urge that the difference between this human weakness and fetish worship is one of degree and not of kind. The current historical authorities for the statements in this chapter are mostly the daily press and the magazines.]

The Brooklyn Bridge.

JAMES ABRAM GARFIELD was born at Orange, Cuyahoga County, Ohio, November 19, 1831. While he was an infant his father died, and he was left to the care of an excellent mother. Brought up in the backwoods, he became rugged, strong, and active, so that in middle life he was always superior to his own sons in athletic contests.

While still a boy, Garfield exhibited remarkable mechanical ability, and his services were in demand among his neighbors. When a young man he was driver for a canal-boat, and at the age of seventeen attended the high school in Chester, where he was a hard student and made good progress in Latin, Greek, and algebra. Entering Hiram College in 1851, he was an instructor at

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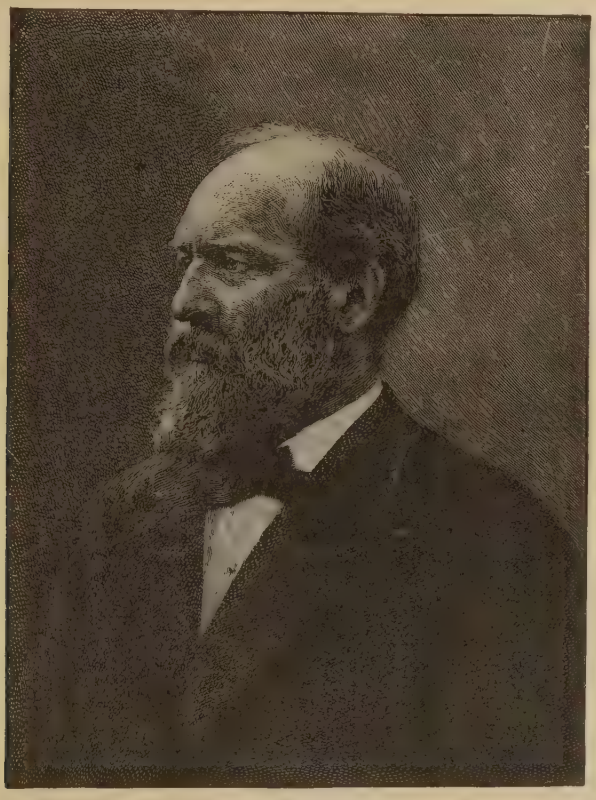
LADIES OF THE WHITE HOUSE—1841 TO 1869

the end of three years. Immediately after, he became a student at Williams College, where he was graduated two years later. Some time afterwards he was made president of Hiram College. Although elected to the Ohio Senate, he was president of the college when the war broke out, and soon entered the military service. One of the



JAMES A. GARFIELD

feats of which the college president was proud was his discovery of an original demonstration of the famous 47th problem of Euclid, or *pons asinorum* (the square described on the hypothenuse of a right-angled triangle is equal to the sum of the squares described on the other two sides).*

* Samuri Takaki, however, excelled Garfield and every other mathematician of which there is any record. This young man was one of a party of Japanese students in attendance, from 1872 to 1875, at the high school connected with Rutgers College, New

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Garfield made a fine record in the war. He was first lieutenant-colonel and then colonel of the Forty-Second Regiment of Ohio Volunteers. He became a brigadier-general, doing excellent service in Kentucky and Tennessee. He was Rosecrans' chief of staff, and showed conspicuous gallantry at Chickamauga. He was elected to Congress while serving in the field, and remained a member of that body for seventeen years, when, in 1879, he was sent to the United States Senate. He did not take his seat, because of his nomination for the Presidency.

The President's Cabinet

President Garfield chose the following Cabinet: James G. Blaine, Secretary of State; William Windom, of Minnesota, Secretary of the Treasury; Robert T. Lincoln, of Illinois (son of the martyred President), Secretary of War; William H. Hunt, of Louisiana, Secretary of the Navy; Samuel J. Kirkwood, of Iowa, Secretary of the Interior; Wayne MacVeagh, of Pennsylvania, Attorney-General; Thomas L. James, of New York, Postmaster-General.

It was not long before dissensions arose in the Republican party. Roscoe Conkling was the leader of the "stalwarts," who had supported Grant's renomination for a third term; while James G. Blaine, Secretary of State, and a strong personal opponent of Conkling, was the leader of the "half-breeds." The stalwarts insisted that the offices should be divided in accordance with the wishes of the Senators and Representatives of the respective States. The President claimed the right of naming the officers as he preferred. He nominated Judge William Robertson for Collector of Customs for the port of New York, one of the best offices in the gift of the administration. He was confirmed, and Conkling and Thomas C. Platt, Senators from the State of New York, were so angered that they resigned their seats in Congress, the Senate adjourning in June.

Assassination of the President

President Garfield arranged to place his two sons in Williams College, and to spend a short time with his invalid wife at the sea-shore. He rode to the Baltimore Railway station, July 2, 1881, in company with Secretary Blaine and some friends, to take the cars for Elberon, N. J. He was in the station talking with Mr. Blaine when a wretched miscreant, named Charles Julius Guiteau, stepped up behind the President and shot him in the back with a pistol. The

Brunswick, New Jersey, and afterwards prominent in the naval department in the war with China. One day Takaki placed on the blackboard *fourteen* accurate and original demonstrations of this famous problem.

President staggered and sank to the floor, but was quickly lifted into a carriage and carried to the executive mansion, while Guiteau was hurried to prison before the people comprehended the crime he had committed. But for this prompt action he would have been lynched.

The country was shocked by the second assassination of a President, and the soldier who was guarding the prisoner only echoed the feeling of the public when he fired his musket at the window of Guiteau's cell, in the hope of killing the assassin.

Death of the President

The President's wound was a severe one, but the hope was strong that he would recover. He received the best medical skill, and so general was the sympathy for the sufferer that earnest prayers were offered up for him throughout Christendom. Never was a man the subject of more petitions to heaven than the dying Garfield, but God in His wisdom saw fit not to grant the prayers. The President was removed to Elberon, where for a time he seemed to rally, but he sank again and quietly passed away on the night of September 19th. It was a curious coincidence that this day was the anniversary of the battle of Chickamauga, where he gained his chief military reputation.

The body was taken to Washington, viewed by vast throngs, and then removed to Cleveland, where a fine monument has since been erected over the remains. Congress voted that the President's salary should be continued to the widow during the remainder of his term, and a fund amounting to $364,000 was presented to her.

The assassin of the President was generally looked upon as a "crank." He was a dogged office-seeker and had shadowed the unsuspicious Garfield for some time before he gained the courage to shoot. His manner during his trial was intolerably insolent, his purpose probably being to impress the jury with his lunacy. No doubt that Guiteau had a slight touch of insanity in his family, and he himself was not intellectually bright, yet he saw clearly the difference between right and wrong, and was morally responsible for his crime. The jury pronounced him guilty, January 25, 1882, and he was hanged on the 30th of June following.

President Arthur

In accordance with the Constitution, Chester Alan Arthur now became President of the United States. He was born in Franklin County, Vermont, October 5, 1830. He was graduated from Union College in 1849, taught school a while, and then removed to New York City, and became a lawyer. He was very successful in his

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profession, and during the war was quartermaster-general of the State of New York. He was made Collector of Customs for the port in 1871, and held the office for seven years, when he was removed by President Hayes.

The Cabinets of Presidents Garfield and Arthur, like those of the first and second Presidents, are interwoven with each other. In ac-

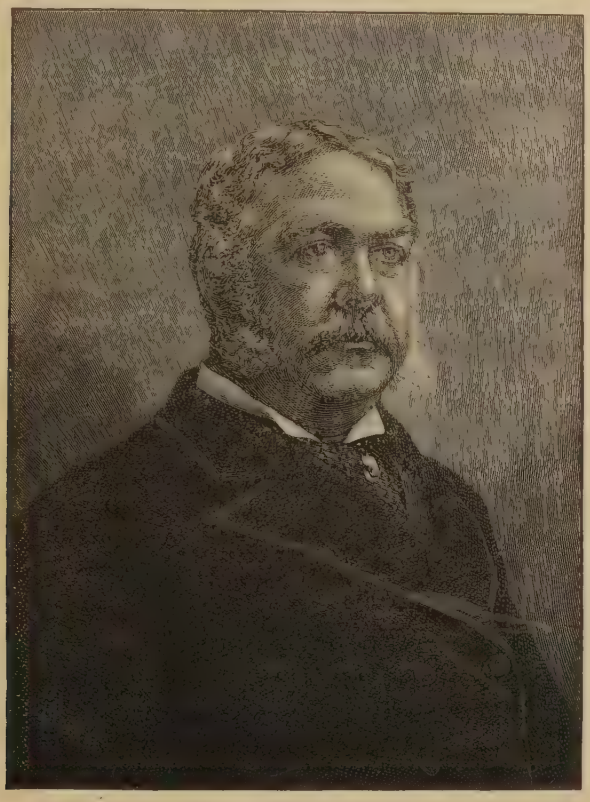
SHOOTING OF PRESIDENT GARFIELD

The President's Cabinet

cordance with custom, all of Garfield's advisers handed their resignations to his successor, as soon as he assumed office. He requested them to retain their places until the meeting of Congress. All complied except Mr. Windom, who resigned in October to be a candidate for the Senate. Edwin Morgan was nominated as his successor and confirmed, but declined to serve, and Judge Charles J. Folger, of New York, held the office until his death in 1884, when he was succeeded by Hugh McCulloch. Frederick T. Frelinghuysen, of New Jersey, followed Blaine as Secretary of State, serving to the end of Arthur's term.

Secretary Folger was succeeded by Walter Q. Gresham, of Indi-

ana, and he by Mr. McCulloch, of the same State. Lincoln served under Garfield and Arthur. Kirkwood gave way to Henry M. Teller, of Colorado, and Hunt to William E. Chandler, of New Hampshire. Postmaster-General James resigned in 1881, and was succeeded by Timothy O. Howe, of Wisconsin, Walter Q. Gresham, and by Frank



CHESTER A. ARTHUR

Hatton, of Iowa. Wayne MacVeigh, Attorney-General under Garfield, was followed by Benjamin H. Brewster, of Pennsylvania.

The "Star Route Fraud

President Arthur was one of the most polished of gentlemen, and showed no wish to change the policy of the former administration, but he found several irritating affairs on his hands. One of these was the "Star Route" frauds. In the sparsely settled regions of the West a number of fast mail routes had been established, and were marked on official documents each by a star. The professed object

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of these star routes was greater promptness in the delivery of the mail in the wild districts, where the settlements were few and far between. The law, however, regarding mail contracts, limited the amounts to be expended, but a clause permitted the appropriation of money for "expediting" these mail routes, and this clause opened the way for enormous frauds. The mail routes were leased at the legal rates, and then vast sums were divided between certain officers of the Government and the contractors for the additional contracts to expedite the same lines. Stephen W. Dorsey, John W. Dorsey, and Thomas J. Brady, formerly Second Assistant Postmaster-General, were indicted for a conspiracy to enrich themselves by defrauding the Government.*

A Miscarriage of Justice

The prominence of the accused drew the attention of the country to the trial. The frauds came to light while President Garfield was alive, but nothing was done in the way of prosecution until Attorney-General Brewster took up the matter. He pushed it vigorously, but the result was a miscarriage of justice. The verdict of September 11, 1882, convicted several insignificant persons, while the real conspirators went free. A new trial began in December, and continued six months. Dorsey's chief clerk turned State's evidence and gave the most damaging testimony against his chief, and yet all three were acquitted. There could be no doubt of the means employed to secure this shameless verdict.

The Mormons

For years the Mormons have caused much trouble to our Government. In 1882 Senator Edmunds introduced an anti-polygamy bill, which after considerable debate, passed both houses, and being duly signed by the President, disfranchised and made all polygamists ineligible to office.†

* A man who was active in this business told the writer that he made an independent fortune in the space of a few months.

† The following proclamation of President Cleveland, issued September 27, 1894, gives a clear idea of the *status* of the Mormon question:

"WHEREAS, Congress by a statute, approved March 22, 1882, and by statutes in furtherance and amendment thereof, defined the crimes of bigamy, polygamy, and unlawful cohabitation in the Territories and other places within the exclusive jurisdiction of the United States, and prescribed a penalty for such crimes; and

"WHEREAS, On or about the sixth day of October, 1890, the Church of the Latter Day Saints, commonly known as the Mormon Church, through its President, issued a manifesto proclaiming the purpose of said Church no longer to sanction the practice of polygamous marriages, and calling upon all members and adherents of said Church to obey the laws of the United States in reference to said subject matter; and

"WHEREAS, On the fourth day of January, 1893, Benjamin Harrison, then President of

HARPER'S FERRY

The suspension bridge connecting the cities of New York and Brooklyn is one of the most important structures of the kind in the world. The main span is 1,595 feet 6 inches long, and the two land spans 930 feet each, the masonry approach on the New York side being 1,562 feet, and on the Brooklyn side 971 feet, so that the total length is about 6,000 feet, or a little more than a mile.

The Brooklyn Bridge

The middle of the bridge is 138 feet above the water in winter, and, because of the expansion produced by heat, three feet less in summer. There are few vessels which cannot pass underneath without lowering their topmasts. Work was begun January 3, 1870, under the direction of the distinguished Prussian engineer, John A. Roebling, who built the suspension bridge below Niagara, another across the Mississippi, and several similar enterprises. Mr. Roebling's foot was crushed while arranging his plans, and he died of lockjaw. His son, Washington A. Roebling, with the help of his wife and at the cost of a permanent injury to his own health, completed the great task. Twenty persons were killed while the construction was going on, and the opening, May 24, 1883, was attended with many impressive ceremonies.

Exploration of Alaska

An interesting event of President Arthur's administration was the exploration of Alaska, our new possession, which was purchased from Russia in 1867. This expedition was in charge of Lieut. Frederick Schwatka, U. S. A., who had had some experience in exploring the Arctic regions.

The Government had nothing to do with the expedition, which left Portland, Ore., in the *Victoria*, May 22, 1883, at midnight. This

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the United States, did declare and grant a full pardon and amnesty to certain offenders under condition of future obedience to their requirements, as is fully set forth in said proclamation of amnesty and pardon; and

"WHEREAS, Upon the evidence now furnished me I am satisfied that the members and adherents of said Church generally abstain from plural marriages and polygamous cohabitation, and are now living in obedience to the laws, and that the time has now arrived when the interests of public justice and morals will be promoted by the granting of amnesty and pardon to all such offenders as have complied with the conditions of said proclamation, including such of said offenders as have been convicted under the provisions of said acts:

"Now, therefore, I, Grover Cleveland, President of the United States, by virtue of powers in me vested, do hereby declare and grant a full amnesty and pardon to all persons who have in violation of said acts committed each of the offences of polygamy, bigamy, adultery, or unlawful cohabitation under the color of polygamous or plural marriage, or who, having been convicted of violations of said acts, are now suffering deprivation of civil rights, having the same, excepting all persons who have not complied with the conditions noted in said Executive proclamation of January 4, 1893."

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unusual hour was taken, because the officers engaged were afraid that the Government would forbid it.

The Columbia-River bar was crossed the next night, and the following morning the *Victoria* entered the Strait of Juan de Fuca, leading to the inland passage to Alaska. Arriving at Victoria, the metropolis of British Columbia, the explorers passed over to Port Townsend, the port of entry for Puget Sound, and continued along the inland passage. The exploration of Alaska was quite complete, and added much valuable information to that already possessed. The Indians of that country are very peculiar and interesting, and the Yukon River is the third in length in the United States, the fourth in North America, the seventh in the Western hemisphere, and the seventeenth in the world. It is 2,044 miles long, and drains an area of 200,000 square miles.

Facts Regarding Alaska

Beginning with 1875, our country was kept pretty busy celebrating the centennial anniversaries of Revolutionary events down to the evacuation of New York by the British, November 26, 1783. The two most important were the Centennial Exposition of 1876, and the anniversary of the surrender of Cornwallis at Yorktown, October 19, 1781.

Thousands of visitors flocked to Yorktown, where the ceremonies proper began with the arrival of the President and most of his Cabinet, on the 18th. The exercises were opened with prayer by Rev. Robert Nelson, grandson of Governor Nelson, who commanded the Virginia militia at Yorktown. Governor Holliday, of Virginia, delivered the address of welcome. At its conclusion the sword which was voted to the messenger who carried the news of the surrender to Philadelphia was displayed. Among the guests seated on the platform was W. W. Henry, grandson of Patrick Henry. The cornerstone of the fine monument was laid with Masonic ceremonies, under direction of the Grand Master of Virginia, who occupied the chair in which George Washington had sat while Grand Master of the Virginia Masons.

The Yorktown Centennial

More than twenty thousand people were present at the ceremonies on the 19th, including an array of notables such as are seldom brought together in this country. There were many governors, leading officers, and distinguished German and French guests, the descendants of those that had given us invaluable aid during the revolutionary struggle for independence. A striking feature at the

conclusion was the reading of the following order (and its compliance) by Secretary Blaine:

"In recognition of the friendly relations so long and so happily subsisting between Great Britain and the United States, in the trust and confidence of peace and good will between the two countries for all centuries to come, and especially as a mark of the profound re-

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spect entertained by the American people for the illustrious sovereign and gracious lady who sits upon the British throne, it is hereby ordered that at the close of these services commemorative of the valor and success of our forefathers in their patriotic struggle for independence, the British flag shall be saluted by the forces of the army and navy of the United States now at Yorktown. The Secretary of War and the Secretary of the Navy will give orders accordingly.

"CHESTER A. ARTHUR."

A Graceful Tribute

The United States has furnished the most intrepid of explorers. It was Captain Wilkes, as will be remembered, who coasted for so many hundred miles the Antarctic continent, and Americans have

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been equally daring in penetrating into the ice-invested regions of the far North. The most famous of all these achievements was that which is known as the Greely expedition.

The Greely Expedition

It was agreed in 1880 that several of the leading nations should unite in fixing a number of stations in the polar regions, for the purpose of studying the different phases of the weather and the action of the magnetic needle, of which as yet little is known. Congress furnished the money for planting a scientific colony at the two places selected by the commission. These were Point Barrow in Alaska, and Lady Franklin Bay in Grinnell Land. The party that was to go to the latter station were Lieut. Adolphus W. Greely, U. S. A., commmander; Lieuts. F. S. Kislingbury and James B. Lockwood, U. S. A., as assistants; and Dr. O. Pavy as surgeon and naturalist. In addition, the company included twenty-two sergeants, corporals, and privates, and two Esquimaus. The steamer *Proteus* conveyed the expedition to the bay, the starting point being St. Johns, Newfoundland.

It will be noted that the Greely expedition did not set out to find the North Pole, as most of the former exploring parties in that region have done, but its movements were to be confined to the waters of Smith Sound, with which hundreds of navigators are as familiar as with those of Long Island Sound.

The simple plan for parties engaged in work like this is to fix upon a place as a base, which can be reached by the government vessels with supplies. Then the explorers can venture in any direction they choose and stay until their provisions run low, when they have only to make their way back to the base, knowing that they will there find all they want. If they wished to push so far north that it would be too great a loss of time to return to the first point, their friends could readily carry supplies forward by means of sledges, and place them at different points, so that the explorers would be sure of them on their return.

The Relief Party

The arrangement was that a relief party should be sent to Lady Franklin Bay in the summer of 1883, to bring back Greely and his companions, or to leave plentiful supplies against his return. In 1882 the *Neptune* landed a quantity of stores at Cape Sabine and marked the storage place, so that Greely could readily find them when he came back.

The relief expedition of the following year included the steam

Custer's Last Fight.

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whaler *Proteus* and the United States gunboat *Yantic*, but when approaching Cape Sabine the *Proteus* was "nipped" in the ice and sunk before she could land any of her provisions. Lieutenant Garlington, the commander, and his men managed to escape in the boats to Upernavik, the Danish settlement, where the *Yantic* had been left. Thence the relief expedition made its way back to the United States, leaving Greely and the explorers in a most dangerous situation; for, when they should reach Cape Sabine, they would be in urgent need of provisions and would find none. There was no game in that land of desolation, and it would seem that nothing could save the brave men from perishing as have so many that penetrated the regions in the past two or three hundred years.

Peril of Greely and his Party

It will be recalled that the Greely expedition, which sailed from St. Johns, July 7, 1881, did so in the steamer *Proteus*, which was afterwards sunk by the ice. She carried on her deck a steam launch, the *Lady Greely*. The explorers reached Upernavik without accident on the 23d of July, and laid in a stock of provisions, and hired two Esquimau guides and thirty-two native dogs. About the middle of August they reached Lady Franklin Bay or Sound, near which they had been ordered to erect a signal station to be called Fort Conger.

A rough but substantial house was built, and before the close of the month all were in comfortable quarters. Exploring parties were continually pushing in different directions. Musk-oxen, ptarmigans, and occasionally wolves were shot, most of the latter being killed by arsenic, as their attentions often became troublesome. No one dared to venture away from home without firearms. On the 16th of October the temperature was 40° below zero, and the moisture on the inside of the window-panes froze to the depth of an inch, and on the 13th of February it was 65° below, an intensity of cold almost inconceivable. Glycerine and pure brandy froze solid, and even the hardy Esquimau dogs suffered; but the men stood it better than would be supposed.

At Fort Conger

The most important "side issue" of the enterprise was the exploration of the northern coast of Greenland. This expedition was in charge of Lieutenant Lockwood, one of the most daring of young men, and well qualified for the work. It was arranged that Sergeant Brainard was to proceed to Cape Sumner in advance with supplies, Lockwood following with more on his dog sledge. Sergeant

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Brainard made his start April 2, amid the waving of flags, the discharge of firearms, and loud cheers.

A study of the map is necessary to understand the movements of this expedition, which in some respects was the most notable that ever penetrated the remote regions of the far North. Fort Conger stood near where the 64th degree of longitude is crossed by the 81st of north latitude. The party were thirteen in number, and the hardships they underwent seem incredible. The wind blew so hard for days that the men were almost lifted off their feet, and the snow that drove into their faces blinded them. The vast masses of ice were tumbled together, so that often they had to use their axes to make room for their sleds, and were continually climbing and toiling over the crystal crags and boulders. At night, they huddled together in their sleeping-bags, sometimes perspiring, but more often on the verge of freezing, and yet resolute to push forward so long as it was possible to make the least advance. Several broke down under the strain and returned, the party being thus reduced to nine. Then Lieutenant Lockwood and two Esquimaus were obliged to turn back on the 10th of April and force their way to Fort Conger, fifty miles distant, in order to get new runners for their sleds and the food which could be obtained nowhere else. The laborious journey to camp was accomplished, and then with three sledges drawn by the men and one dog sledge, they resumed their plodding towards the Pole. On the 25th of April they were farther northward than any American had ever been, and were hopeful of passing the highest point reached by man.

Exploring the Northern Coast

Near where the 55th meridian and the parallel of 82° 20′ cross each other the majority of the party turned back, while three men, Lieutenant Lockwood, Sergeant Brainard, and Frederick the Esquimau continued the northward journey, taking twenty-five days' rations with them. Since it was impossible to obtain another particle of food, it was necessary that the advance and return should be made very nearly within the period named.

Groping Toward the Pole

It was the most toilsome kind of work from the start. The men had to help push and pull the sledges, often being compelled to unload them before obstructions could be surmounted.

Cape Britannia is in latitude about 82° 45′. It was seen but not reached by the explorer Beaumont, and Lieutenant Greely had no hope that Lockwood could pass beyond, but the intrepid young man

was determined to surpass all previous records. At Cape Britannia, he built a cabin and left five days' provisions and a record of what he had done, including everything that could possibly be spared. Thus it may be said the three men were stripped for the greatest race ever run.

Frederick the Esquimau was left with the dogs in camp, and Lockwood and Brainard climbed a half-mile up a mountain near by and surveyed the landscape of sun and ice. Carefully noting their bearings, they labored forward, often taking observations, and thrilled by the knowledge that they were steadily drawing near the highest point ever attained, and fired, too, by the resolve at all costs to pass beyond it.

Wonderful Work

The memorable journey ended on the 13th of May, 1882, when they reached a wide chasm in the ice, too broad to be crossed, and extending for miles to the right and left. The Esquimau set out to find a place narrow enough to be leaped. While he was absent, Lockwood and Brainard prepared to take an observation; but a dense fog came up and prevented it. Frederick returned with the report that he had found no place where the rent in the ice could be crossed. A storm set in and raged so furiously that the three were obliged to huddle together in their little tent and wait for it to abate.

On the 15th, all the conditions were favorable, and the observations were taken with a care that excluded the possibility of mistake. Then the thrilling fact was proved that their longitude was 40° 46½′ west of Greenwich, their latitude 83° 24½′ north. Hitherto the highest latitude reached was by the Nares expedition, sent out by England in 1875–76, but the three men were now considerably beyond that, so that they had ATTAINED THE MOST NORTHERN LATITUDE AND WERE NEARER THE NORTH POLE THAN ANY MAN HAD EVER YET GONE.*

A Great Achievement

The extreme point thus reached was named Lockwood Island, and the farthest point which they could faintly discern in the far-away horizon received the name of Cape Robert Lincoln, in honor of the son of Abraham Lincoln, who was Secretary of War.

With the same labor and hardships the three men toiled south-

*This great achievement, however, has been surpassed by the Norwegian explorer, Dr. Fridtjof Nansen, who on the 7th of April, 1895, reached a point among the ice hummocks of the Arctic Ocean only 261 statute miles distant from the North Pole. The latitude attained by Dr Nansen was 86° 14′.

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ward, and early in June rejoined their comrades at Fort Conger. Then began the wearisome waiting for the relief ship; but the days and weeks passed, and the dismal scene was brightened by no sight of the longed-for sail or smoke of steamer. And so the months slowly grew, until with an unspeakable depression of spirits they saw the long Arctic night close in upon them.

The Reign of Darkness

That fearful reign of darkness, stretching into months, is a trial before which the strongest men succumb. They grow insane, and seek to end their wretchedness by suicide. Days pass without a man speaking a word; the enforced companionship becomes intolerable to the most intimate of friends, who plunge off in the darkness for no other purpose than to get out of sight of each other.* Lieutenant Greely informed his companions that whether the relief ship came or not, they would start for home no later than the 8th of August. To add to the misery of the situation there was considerable ill-feeling among many of the members, though Greely, Lockwood, and Brainard remained friends through all the hideous trials. But charity must be extended to the poor fellows, for who could have been tried more sorely than they?

The twenty-five explorers started homeward, August 9, 1883, using their little steam launch, a whale-boat, an English boat, and a still smaller one for which need might arise. Their first destination was Littleton Island, where they hoped to find a ship that would take them to Newfoundland.

The voyage began well, but soon became a perpetual battle with the ice and blinding tempest. Reaching Princess Marie Bay at last, all saw that their situation was perilous as it could be. Most of the men were in despair.

A Hopeless Journey

The launch became useless, and they resorted to sledge travel, two of the sledges carrying a boat each, and all drawn by the men. The floe upon which they were floating broke apart, and, after escaping many dangers, they reached a point about a dozen miles from Cape Sabine. A small party made its way thither, and came back with news of the loss of the *Proteus*. It was inevitable that another winter should be spent in the awful region, and a spot between Cape Sabine and Cocked Hat Island was selected for their home. A new hut was put up, and a welcome supply of provisions obtained from

* The surgeon of Dr. Kane's expedition says that so all-pervading was this intense depression that he saw a rooster deliberately fly overboard and drown himself.

the cache left by the *Neptune* in 1882. It was impossible to get away from the spot, and when the long wintry night drew to a close, all the men were on the verge of starvation. Not one of them believed that they could survive more than a few days longer. Several died, the brave Lieutenant Lockwood passing away on the morning of April 9, 1884.

The Relief Expedition

It may seem that the Government had forgotten Lieutenant Greely and his comrades, but such was not the fact. There was widespread alarm felt for them. In May, 1884, a relief expedition, consisting of the *Thetis*, *Bear*, and *Alert*, under Commander Winfield S. Schley, sailed from the Brooklyn Navy-Yard, leaving St. Johns on the 12th of the same month. The ships encountered a great deal of ice in Baffin Bay and Smith Sound, but pushed through, and June 22d a number of men were sent ashore to search for the lost explorers. With the steam launch of the *Bear*, they reached Brevoort Island, where they found the letter written by Lockwood eight months before, and which made known that they were nearly out of provisions and told where they had gone into camp.

The fact that the letter was written so long previous made it seem impossible that any of the explorers were alive, but the relief party now put forth every energy. The *Bear* pushed forward, and her launch was sent out again the next day, with the result that the camp of the sufferers was discovered. Lifting the flap of the collapsed tent, the emaciated Greely was seen, apparently dying from starvation and exhaustion.

Rescue of the Explorers

Seven men out of the twenty-five were alive: Lieutenant Greely, Brainard, Connell, Ellison, Biederbeck, Fredericks, and Long. Not one could have survived another week had relief failed to reach them.

The famishing and dazed men were treated with all possible skill, but it took them a long time to rally. Ellison died during the halt at Disco Harbor, and the relief expedition reached St. Johns, July 17th, whence the news was telegraphed to the United States. The survivors arrived in New York on the 8th of August.*

* In 1886, the Royal Geographical Society of Great Britain awarded two grand prizes to Captain Adolphus W. Greely and Sergeant David L. Brainard, respectively, for having attained the greatest results in adding to geographical knowledge by explorations. First-Lieutenant David L. Brainard, of the Second Cavalry, was promoted to a captaincy in 1894. His remarkable record as a subsistence officer on the ill-fated Franklin Bay expedition attracted the attention of Secretary Lamont. When the camp was starv-

No account of this scène can be so graphic as that given by the member of the rescue party who first came upon the dying explorers. This man was J. A. Jackson, who was a signal man for Commander Schley.

"When we reached Beard Inlet," said he, "we came across a record of Greely in an ice cache. We always kept a man in the crow's nest on top of a mast, watching closely with a strong glass for any signs of a habitation. This lookout man was changed every half hour, and only men with strong eyesight were selected. There was no such thing as darkness in those regions at that season of the year—just a continual day. One day the lookout discerned a tiny speck on the land several miles away, and boats were lowered for an investigation. I was detailed among the boat's crew. When we came to land we found the speck the lookout discovered to be a tent-flap half raised. I shall never forget the sight as I pulled back the tent flap.

A Graphic Story

"Greely was in a half-raised posture, his eyes glassy. He was resting on his sleeping-bag, and in one hand he held a boot. The top of the boot-leg was moist, and I suppose he had been trying to get a little nourishment by chewing it. Fredericks was lying close to him, and as I supposed at first glance was dead. Greely, as we afterwards found out, had heard the shouting of our party. It was about 40° below zero that day, and so still was the air that our shouts could be heard a long distance away. One of the explorers, Connell, was lying on his back with as little of life in him as any man ever had. There was not a trace of human warmth to his limbs, nor could I detect even the faintest beat of his heart, yet that man lived. Whiskey saved him. We 'wig-wagged,' as the method of signalling is called, to the ship. When the seven rescued men were taken aboard ship we didn't dare take them to a warm room; instead, they were kept on deck and given gradually increased doses of whiskey and nourishment. One of the men had his hands and feet frozen off, as completely amputated as if by a surgeon's knife. He died on his way home."

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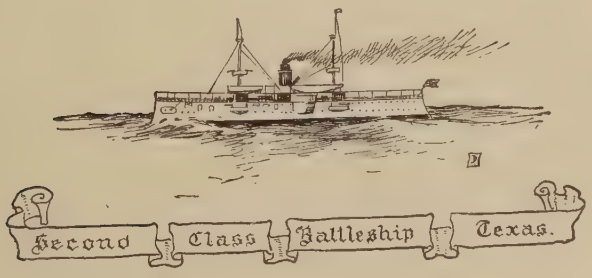
ing at Camp Sabine. Brainard, who had charge of the rations, consisting of sealskin and the other miserable substitutes for food, made primitive scales, carefully weighing out the ration of each man, and when all others were too weak to move, he prolonged the existence of the party seventy days by catching shrimps and dividing them among the survivors, all of whom afterwards testified their belief that he never took even his rightful share from their scanty store.

CHAIN BRIDGE OVER THE POTOMAC RIVER, NEAR WASHINGTON

In the Presidential election of 1884, the Democrats put forward Grover Cleveland, of New York, with Thomas A. Hendricks, of Indiana, the candidate for Vice-President. The nominees of the Republicans were James G. Blaine, of Maine, and General John A. Logan, of Illinois. The Republicans made the tariff the main issue, while the Democrats used civil service reform as their principal argument. The Republicans as a party were strongly protective, but many of their political opponents held the same views, and the lines between the two parties were often intermingled or disappeared altogether.

The contest was close, with the indications in favor of the election of Blaine, when his chances were destroyed by one of those trifling incidents which sometimes change the destiny of a nation. At a banquet, near the close of the campaign, in New York City, Reverend Dr. Burchard, in a speech of welcome, referred to the Democratic party as that of "Rum, Romanism, and rebellion." The words (which Mr. Blaine said he did not rebuke because he did not hear them) offended many Roman Catholics, who voted for Mr. Blaine's opponent. Mr. Cleveland carried the State of New York by the slight majority of 1,047, out of a total of more than 1,100,000. This gave him an aggregate of 219 electoral votes to 182 for Mr. Blaine. John P. St. John, the Prohibition candidate, received 151,809 popular votes, but no electoral ones, and 133,825 were cast for Benjamin F. Butler, the greenback candidate.

Presidential Election of 1884



CHAPTER LXXXIII

CLEVELAND'S FIRST ADMINISTRATION, 1885–1889

[*Authorities:* Probably one of the most efficient causes in impairing the usefulness of our Presidents is office-seeking. Garfield lost his life on account of disappointing the miserable Guiteau in his importunities for position, and life was scarcely endurable for each of his predecessors in the Presidential chair on account of being pestered by people in search of positions under the Government. Senators and Congressmen champion the cause of these cormorants, and use the influence of their high office to secure for them the places they seek. It is doubtful whether Jackson, when he said, "To the victors belong the spoils," realized how much he was going to plague his successors. Mr. Cleveland's partially successful attempt to bring under the domination of the civil service every office possible was undoubtedly a step in the right direction, and one that will relieve future Presidents of much nerve-wrecking annoyance. It is to be hoped that the work he began will be continued and perfected by his successors until our chief magistrate will be relieved from these exasperating beseechings. Of course, this will displease the professional politicians, who endeavor to enhance their own political fortunes by securing places for their most active supporters. Special authorities for this chapter are the same as those of the preceding.]

Ex-President Cleveland's Home.

GROVER CLEVELAND was born at Caldwell, N. J., March 18, 1837. He received his education in the public schools, and taught for a while in an institution for the blind at Clinton, N. Y. He made his home in Buffalo in 1855, and, having been admitted to the bar, was appointed assistant district-attorney in 1863, and seven years later was elected sheriff of the county. Although the city was strongly Republican, he was chosen mayor in 1881. His course added to his popularity, and he received the nomination for governor in the autumn of 1882. His majority of 192,854 was so prodigious that it attracted the attention of the

country, and led to his nomination for the Presidency at Chicago, July 10, 1884, by a vote of 683 against 137 for all the others.

Four members of Mr. Cleveland's Cabinet served out the term. They were: Secretary of State, Thomas F. Bayard, of Delaware; Secretary of War, William C. Endicott, of Massachusetts; Secretary of the Navy, William C. Whitney, of New York, and Attorney-General, Augustus H. Garland, of Arkansas.

The President's Cabinet

Daniel Manning, of New York, Secretary of the Treasury, was succeeded by Charles S. Fairchild, of New York; Lucius Q. C. Lamar, of Mississippi, Secretary of the Interior, by William F. Vilas, of Wisconsin, transferred from the Post-Office Department, where he was succeeded by Don M. Dickinson, of Michigan. Norman J. Colman, of Missouri, was the first Secretary of Agriculture.

Twenty-five years had passed since the Democracy held the reins of government, and the members of the party, as might be expected, were clamorous for the offices that had been so long in the hands of the Republicans; but the President offended a great many of his supporters by living up to the principle of civil service reform, which, as will be remembered, was the leading plank in the platform on which he was elected.

One of the most striking objects that greets a person when sailing up the harbor of New York is the Statue of Liberty. It is the conception of Frederick Auguste Bartholdi, the eminent French sculptor. An appeal made for subscriptions in France in 1874 met with a cordial response, and February 22, 1877, Congress voted to accept the gift and set apart Bedloe's Island for the site. The official presentation of the statue to the minister of the United States took place in Paris, July 4, 1884, the presentation being made by Count de Lesseps, who stated that one hundred thousand French persons had contributed to its cost, and that they represented 180 cities, 40 general councils, and many chambers of commerce and societies.

The Bartholdi Statue

The Bartholdi statue was dedicated October 28, 1886, and, although the weather was cold and rainy, the ceremonies were impressive. Among those on the reviewing stand were President Cleveland, General Sheridan, Secretaries Bayard, Lamar, Whitney, and Vilas of the Cabinet; M. Bartholdi, M. de Lesseps, and the French delegation, and many leading American citizens.

Every one knows that the Bartholdi statue is of colossal propor-

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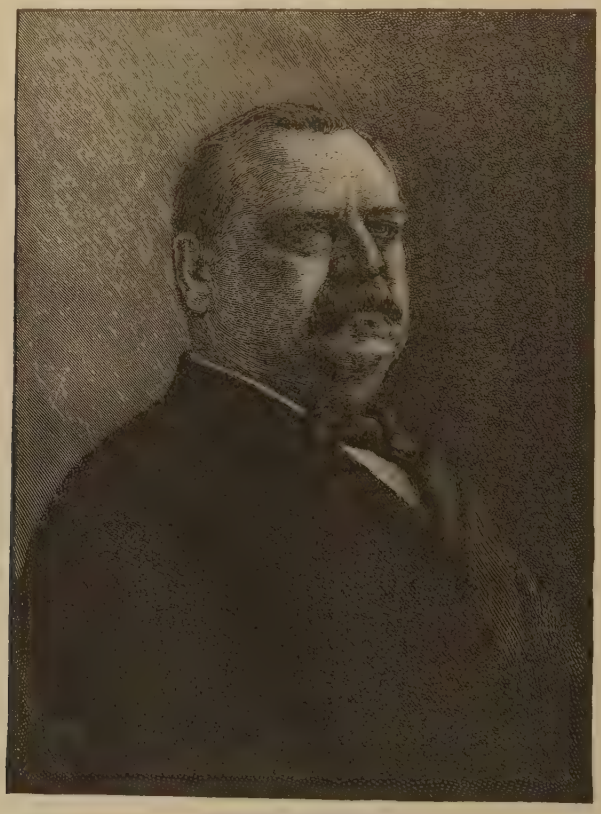
tions, being the largest work of the kind ever built, but the following figures are worth noting: it is 150 feet from the base of the figure to the top of the torch, which is 305 feet above low-water mark. The copper sheets that form the outside of the statue weigh 88 tons. The forefinger is more than eight feet long; the second joint about five feet in circumference; the finger-nail more than a foot;



GROVER CLEVELAND

the nose almost four feet, and the head about fourteen and a half feet high. Forty persons can stand together in the head, and twelve within the hollow torch.

Death of General Grant

The first year of Cleveland's administration will always be memorable because it saw the death of the foremost soldier and citizen of the Republic. A malignant cancer developed at the root of General Grant's tongue, and medical science was powerless to check

U. S. GRANT

ULYSSES S. GRANT

REPRODUCED FROM A PHOTOGRAPH BY ANDERSON TAKEN NOT LONG BEFORE GENERAL GRANT'S LAST ILLNESS

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its growth. His vitality enabled him to resist it for a long time, and he was removed to Mount McGregor, in New York State, where he was surrounded by his devoted family and attended by physicians of the highest skill. With death steadily advancing upon him, and amid the most poignant suffering, he completed his Memoirs, which form an invaluable addition to the history of the Civil War. At last his great vitality succumbed, and he quietly passed away, a few minutes after eight o'clock, on the evening of July 22, 1885.

Biographical Sketch of Grant

So much has already been told of General Grant, in the history of the late war, that only a few additional facts are necessary. He was born at Point Pleasant, Clermont County, Ohio, April 27, 1822, and was the son of Jesse Root and Hannah Simpson Grant. His baptismal name was Hiram Ulysses, but it was given as Ulysses Simpson upon his appointment to West Point, and he allowed it so to remain.

He was a sturdy lad with no special taste for a soldier's life when he entered the Military Academy, from which he was graduated in 1843, standing twenty-first in a class of thirty-nine. He was sent to the frontier, and gained his first practical knowledge of campaigning in the war with Mexico. He did so well that he received the brevet of captain. He remained in the army for a time after his marriage to Miss Julia Dent, of St. Louis, but resigned in 1854, and lived near that city on a farm belonging to his wife. He was a real estate agent for a time, and once ventured to run for the office of city surveyor, but was defeated.

Removing to Galena, Illinois, Grant worked as a clerk in his father's store at a salary of fifty dollars a month. When President Lincoln called for volunteers, Grant, as the only military man in Galena, drilled the company raised there, and took it to Springfield, the capital. He was a patriotic man, and sent a letter to the adjutant-general offering his services, but no notice was taken of his application. Governor Yates, after a time, set him to work to help organize and equip the volunteers of the State.

This field was limited, but the excellent manner in which he performed his task attracted attention, and he was commissioned as colonel of the Twenty-First Regiment of volunteer infantry. In a short time his regiment was one of the best drilled and disciplined in the service. He was stationed at Ironton, Mo., and August 7, 1861, was assigned to duty as brigade commander. He took part at Cairo on the 2d of September, his territorial command being under

PRESIDENT CLEVELAND AND HIS FIRST CABINET

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Fremont, and including Southeastern Missouri, Southern Illinois, and Western Kentucky and Tennessee. He lost no time in occupying Paducah, an important point, threatened by the Confederate General Polk from Columbus. It was this act that broke up the neutrality of Kentucky, and incensed the secessionists of that section; but Grant's course was approved by the Government, and he threw all his energies into the work he had undertaken.

Grant's first battle in the Civil War was that of Belmont, on November 7th. Advancing from Cairo, he attacked a strong Confederate force, covered by the guns at Columbus, and after driving them out of their camps with heavy loss, he withdrew to his fleet on the approach of Confederate reinforcements. His next work was the brilliant capture of Forts Henry and Donelson, which roused the admiration of the North. Thenceforward his career is interwoven with the history of the war, and has therefore been fully told in the preceding pages.

Well Merited Honors

In many ways the country showed its gratitude to General Grant for his pre-eminent services. Swords of honor, money, and houses were given to him; Congress voted its thanks and created a new army rank for him, and finally he was twice chosen by an immense majority President of the United States.

After his return from a tour around the world General Grant engaged in business in the city of New York. The soul of honor himself, he became the victim of adroit swindlers, and lost all his own savings and those of many others. It was the severest blow of his life, but he was enmeshed in the toils that have ruined thousands, and which proved the crowning misfortune of his life. It was shortly after this that the cancer manifested itself and his earthly career drew to a close. The funeral ceremonies were among the most impressive ever seen in the history of our country. The remains were fittingly entombed at Riverside Park, on the Hudson, the funeral procession being viewed by twenty miles of people, wedged shoulder to shoulder on either side of the nine and a half miles' line of march.

The Funeral Ceremonies

Probably half a million were in the double line and in the windows along the route. Among those in the carriages were Generals Sherman, J. E. Johnston, Sheridan, Buckner, John A. Logan, President Cleveland and his Cabinet, Ex-President Hayes and Arthur, with Senators, Congressmen, governors, mayors, assemblymen, and hundreds of prominent citizens.

Among the innumerable honors to the memory of General Grant, one of the most pleasing was the unveiling of an equestrian statue in front of the Union League Club in Brooklyn, April 25, 1896. The

STATUE OF LIBERTY

governor of the State and his staff, and many distinguished military men were present, besides an immense assemblage of citizens from New York and adjoining States. The string that unveiled the statue was pulled by Ulysses S. Grant, Jr., son of Colonel Frederick

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D. Grant, and grandson of General Grant. The statue is bronze, and stands 15 feet 8 inches in height, the pedestal being a granite block 16 feet in height.

Besides General Grant, a number of notable persons passed away during the first administration of President Cleveland. Vice-President Thomas A. Hendricks died unexpectedly at his home in Indianapolis on the afternoon of November 25, 1885. He had returned the day before from Chicago, where he caught a severe cold. He was carried off by paralysis of the heart. He was a worthy citizen, charitable, kind, courteous, and held in high respect by political opponents as well as by friends.*

Death of the Vice-President

General George B. McClellan, at his beautiful home on Orange Mountain, N. J., was seized with such severe neuralgic pains about the heart at three o'clock on the morning of October 29, 1885, that he succumbed within five hours. He had always enjoyed robust health, and his death was a shock to his friends. He was born in Philadelphia, December 3, 1826. On his graduation at West Point, in 1846, he stood second in the largest class that up to that time had ever been graduated from the academy. He at once took service in the war with Mexico, and was breveted captain for distinguished

Death of Gen. McClellan

* A curious assertion has been made in connection with the death of Mr. Hendricks. The law at that time was that the president *pro tempore* of the Senate succeeded to the presidential office in the event of the death or incapacity of both President and Vice-President. In the absence of a president *pro tempore*, the succession devolved upon the Speaker, but either of these officers only acted as President until Congress could be called together on twenty days' notice, and a special election could be ordered. The death of Mr. Hendricks early in Mr. Cleveland's term brought a situation that had no precedent. Until his sickness Mr. Hendricks had prevented, by declining to vacate the chair, the election of a president *pro tempore*, induced thus to act with some political advantage in view, the Senate being Republican by a narrow majority. When he died, therefore, there was no president *pro tempore*, and there was no Speaker, since the death occurred between the dissolution of one Congress and the assembling of the next. While President Cleveland was making his preparations to go to Indianapolis to attend the funeral, the peculiar situation was laid before him that if he were killed the country could have no head, and there would be no one with even temporary authority to call an extraordinary session of Congress. No special election could be ordered, and indeed no step at all be taken. All must be in confusion until the time for the regular assembling of Congress in December; and until the Senate chose a president *pro tempore* or the House elected a Speaker, no one could perform any of the duties of President. The extraordinary situation was impressed upon Mr. Cleveland by Senator Edmunds (who was the first to perceive it) and others, and upon their urgency the President remained in Washington (for which he was severely criticised) during the funeral of Mr. Hendricks. As soon as Congress convened afterwards, Senator Edmunds pressed to enactment the Presidential Succession Bill, by which such a contingency as the one named is rendered impossible.

bravery at the capture of the City of Mexico. At West Point, Stonewall Jackson was one of his classmates.

McClellan's career with the Army of the Potomac and during the Civil War is a part of history. In 1877 he was elected Democratic governor of New Jersey by the large majority of 12,000. His administration was creditable. His character was stainless through life, and he died as he had lived, a consistent Christian.

Death of Gen. Hancock

General Winfield Scott Hancock, commanding the military division of the Atlantic, Department of the East, died on the afternoon of February 9, 1886, when he lacked five days of being sixty-two years old. He was born in Pennsylvania, being a twin of his brother Hilary. When he was at West Point, U. S. Grant, McClellan, Rosecrans, Longstreet, and Stonewall Jackson were cadets. He was breveted for gallantry in the war with Mexico, and made a fine record during the Civil War. He possessed undaunted courage, was a fine organizer, a splendid fighter, and a loyal supporter of McClellan, Burnside, Hooker, and all the commanders of the Army of the Potomac. No one did more than he to win the decisive battle of Gettysburg, and he received the thanks of Congress for his services. He was painfully wounded in this battle, but kept his saddle as long as he could sustain himself. While he lay on a stretcher, as we have learned, he sent word to General Meade, telling him the Confederates were in full retreat. At Chancellorsville he captured General Edward Johnson and his whole division. In the Presidential election of 1880 he received 10,000 more votes than Garfield, and but for his unfortunate declaration that the tariff was a "local issue" he would have been successful. General Hancock was strikingly handsome in appearance, and his marked courtesy of manner and thoughtful consideration made him popular in the South. He was a patriot who was an honor to the republic in which he was born and to which he gave his lifelong services.

Death of S. J. Tilden

Samuel Jones Tilden died on the morning of August 4, 1886, at Yonkers, N. Y. He was born in New Lebanon, in the same State, February 9, 1814, and was a very successful lawyer. The most creditable work of his public career was his fight against the corrupt "Tweed Ring" in New York City. He was elected governor of New York, in 1873, by a majority of 50,000, and his administration was a commendable one. His statesmanlike qualities gave him the Presidential nomination in 1876, when, as has been shown, he

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was really elected, though the Electoral Commission decided in favor of R. B. Hayes.

Ex-President Arthur died at his home in New York City, November 18, 1886, of Bright's disease. His funeral was attended by the President and his Cabinet, General Sheridan, and other distinguished citizens. General John A. Logan, the foremost type of the American volunteer, died at his home in Washington, December 26, 1886, of a violent attack of rheumatism, complicated with brain trouble.

Death of Ex-President Arthur

Twenty years had passed since the sun of the Confederacy sank forever behind the hills of Appomattox. The leaders were fast passing away, and the grass was growing over the battlefields, furrowed by shot and shell, and upon the mounds that marked the last resting place of the fallen heroes. The "bloody chasm" that once separated the sections was closed, and across it were clasped the hands of those who wore the Blue and those who wore the Gray.

The Blue and the Gray

Mourners who had visited the cemetery in New Orleans to strew flowers on the graves of their dead friends laid the sweet tributes also upon the last resting-places of those that had once been their enemies. This act of honoring alike the Confederate and Union dead touched a responsive chord North and South. In one section, Memorial Day is as sacred an anniversary as is Decoration Day in the other.

It was this incident that inspired Judge Francis M. Finch, of New York, to write:

THE BLUE AND THE GRAY.

By the flow of the inland river
Whence the fleets of iron have fled,
Where the blades of the grave-grass quiver,
Asleep are the ranks of the dead.
Under the sod and the dew,
Waiting the judgment day—
Under the one, the Blue;
Under the other, the Gray.

These in the robings of glory,
Those in the gloom of defeat,
All with the battle blood gory,
In the dusk of eternity meet.
Under the sod and the dew,
Waiting the judgment day,
Under the laurel, the Blue;
Under the willow, the Gray.

From the silence of sorrowful hours,
The desolate mourners go,
Lovingly laden with flowers,
Alike for the friend and foe.
Under the sod and the dew,
Waiting the judgment day—
Under the roses, the Blue.
Under the lilies, the Gray.

So with an equal splendor,
The morning sun rays fall,
With a touch impartially tender,
On the blossoms blooming for all.
Under the sod and the dew,
Waiting the judgment day—
Broidered with gold, the Blue;
Mellowed with gold, the Gray.

So, when the Summer calleth
On forest and field of grain,
With an equal murmur falleth
The cooling drip of the rain.
Under the sod and the dew,
Waiting the judgment day—
Wet with the rain, the Blue;
Wet with the rain, the Gray.

Sadly, but not with upbraiding,
The generous deed was done;
In the storm of the years that are fading,
No braver battle was won.
Under the sod and the dew,
Waiting the judgment day—
Under the blossoms, the Blue;
Under the garlands, the Gray.

No more shall the war-cry sever,
Or the winding rivers be red;
They banish our anger forever,
When they laurel the graves of our dead.
Under the sod and the dew,
Waiting the judgment day—
Love and tears for the Blue,
Tears and love for the Gray.

Ruined Indian Pueblo and Citadel.

CHAPTER LXXXIV

CLEVELAND'S FIRST ADMINISTRATION, 1885–1889 (CONCLUDED)

[*Authorities:* Among the matters discussed in this chapter are the anarchist riots at Chicago during Mr. Cleveland's first administration and the murder by them of a number of policemen. The anarchists were subsequently tried, and punished by execution or imprisonment. Later, a governor of Illinois, obviously in the hope that it will help his political fortunes, denounces those who were instrumental in bringing these miscreants to justice, and pardons those that survive. One of the least hopeful signs of permanence in a government like our own is that such men can become leaders of political parties, have themselves elected to high office, and so become efficient in controlling and directing the industrial and political destiny of our country. It seems, when speculating about such episodes, that the elective franchise has been too generously conferred. The rabble of Europe come here, not with theintention of becoming good, law-abiding citizens of our republic, but to breed discontent among our workingmen and to reap advantage from the dissensions that result from their mischievous propaganda. They are speedily invested with the franchise, and help to place in office such men as the governor referred to.]

Castle Garden, New York City.

THE Apache Indians of the Southwest are the most murderous of all the red men that have resisted the settlement of their country by the white people. It has been shown that the grossest injustice marked the action of the first settlers towards the Indians, and from that day until the present hour this unwisdom, dishonesty, and fraud have prevailed to a greater or less degree. It has been truly said that back of all the Indian outbreaks and massacres the inciting cause will be invariably found in broken treaties, scoundrelly agents, and disregarded obligations on the part of the national government. It is a sad fact that in every Indian outbreak it is the innocent and not the guilty that suffer.

PURSUING THE APACHES.

The Apaches

But, aside from the injustice towards the Apaches, they committed many of their crimes in pure wantonness. They are treacherous, as merciless as tigers, and with a power of endurance that approaches the marvellous. One of those stocky, iron-limbed bucks will lope up the side of a mountain for half a mile without the slightest increase of respiration; he will ride over the alkali plains of Arizona and New Mexico when the flaming sun so heats the metal of the weapons of his pursuers that they blister their hands; he will endure thirst for hours, and if at the end of two or three days he decides to eat, he will feast upon serpents, or insects, or kill his pony and continue his raid on foot; a party of them will burrow in the sand that is hot enough to roast eggs, peering out like so many rattlesnakes, until the unsuspicious wagon-train has reached the right spot, and then burst upon them like a cyclone; if hard pressed they will scatter like a covey of quail. When pursuit has been made impossible they come together in some mountain gorge, fifty miles away. They would burn the buildings of a ranch, slaughter the men, women, and infants, and by the time a pursuit could be organized would be repeating the atrocity a dozen miles distant. The bravest man shuddered for his family when news reached him that Victoria, or Mangus, or Geronimo had broken away from the reservation, and with eight or ten hostiles was spreading desolation and woe along the frontier.

Injustice to the Apaches

There was no trouble with the Warm Spring Indians until 1872. They were satisfied with their fertile lands in Warm Spring Valley, New Mexico, and only asked to be let alone. But there were plenty of greedy white men who coveted the land, and they persuaded the Interior Department to order the Indians to leave. In March, 1872, they were taken to the barren region around Fort Tularosa, to be taught the improved methods of farming. Nature interposed a check, for the soil was not only worthless, but it was so cold that ice formed except for three months in the year, and the only vegetation that would grow was stunted turnips. General Howard saw the blunder that had been made, and had the Warm Spring Indians sent back to their old homes. It was not long, however, before a still greater mistake was committed, when they were removed to the San Carlos Reservation. There the water was brackish and the soil sterile, but, worst of all, the section was the home of a thousand Chiricahua Apaches, who were hereditary

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enemies of the Warm Spring band, hardly three-fourths as numerous.

The leader of the Warm Spring Indians was Geronimo, the most famous of the miscreants that spread terror and desolation for years through the Southwest. His father was Mangus Colorado, who was,

AN APACHE WARRIOR

Geronimo

if possible, worse than the son. Mangus Colorado was one of the few Indians who had no ground of complaint against the whites; they had never ill-used him, but his hatred of them was intense. He trained his son in this terrible school, and when finally Mangus was killed, he left a worthy successor behind him.

Geronimo pushed the work of massacre so relentlessly that a vigorous effort was made to run him down. One of those enlisted against him was a chief named Chato. This Indian was a cousin of

Geronimo, and the two claimed to be enemies. It was Chato who murdered, some years before, the family of Judge McComas at a crossing of the river Gila. Although Chato afterwards professed to be a good Indian, and never tired in the pursuit of his cousin, there are grounds for believing that a secret understanding existed between

AN APACHE HOME

them, and that Geronimo received timely warning of every threatening movement against him.

Geronimo on a Raid

Finally Geronimo declared that he would be a hostile no more. He remained quiet and peaceful for a time, but in May, 1885, he broke away from the reservation, taking with him thirty-four warriors, eight youths, and ninety-one women, the party not going into camp until they had ridden one hundred and twenty miles. Their

pursuers were at their heels, and kept it up for several hundred miles, but not once did they get within gunshot, and the band found safety among the mountains. The hunt, however, was maintained, and at last a desperate effort resulted in the capture of Geronimo. He was held prisoner a single night, when he broke away again. Returning some days later with several warriors, he caught up a white woman and threatened to kill her if she did not point out his wife's tent (this chief is now living with his seventeenth wife). She showed him the tent, and, seizing his wife, he was off before any man knew of his presence in camp.

A Capture and an Escape

Captain H. W. Lawton took up the pursuit May 5, 1885, with the intention of operating within Mexican territory, as it was thought that Geronimo would withdraw to his stronghold in the Sierra Madres. Instead, however, his band separated into small parties, and began a bloody raid in Southwestern Arizona and Northwestern Sonora. Captain Lawton therefore changed his original plan, and took up the direct pursuit.

Lawton's command included thirty-five men of Troop B, Fourth Cavalry, twenty Indian scouts, twenty men of Company D, Eighth Infantry, and two pack-trains. They left Fort Huachuca, and entered at once upon their difficult and dangerous task.

In June, fresh detachments of scouts and infantry took the places of the others who were worn out, and in the following month the hostiles were driven southeast of Oposura, the pursuers having travelled by that time a distance of 1,400 miles, over parched desert and wild mountains. Never before were the Apaches pressed with so persistent vigor. Three times they were forced to abandon their animals and flee on foot. "Every device known to the Indian," says Captain Lawton, "was practised to throw me off the trail, but without avail. My trailers were good, and it was soon proved that there was no spot the enemy could reach where security was assured."

A Vigorous Pursuit

When the cavalry were used up, infantry and Indian scouts took their place, doing a work whose difficulty can hardly be understood. During the day the heat was frightful, and the rain fell in torrents at night. Many of the iron-limbed soldiers succumbed, until only fourteen of the infantry were left. When they were barefoot they gave up, and Lieutenant A. L. Smith with his cavalry took their places.

Amazing as was the endurance of the Apaches, they had never known anything like this. The tremendous pursuit was due to Gen-

eral Miles, who had succeeded General Cook, relieved at his own request. As proof of the almost incredible work done by this command during more than four months, they passed a distance exceeding 3,000 miles, the trail of the Apaches crossing and recrossing

ON THE WAR PATH

itself, and leading through the wildest portions of what seemed inaccessible mountains. Scout Eduardy once rode a single horse nearly 500 miles within the period of a week. The raiding and massacreing covered a region of 30,000 square miles, while about 3,000

soldiers on our side of the line, and as many Mexican soldiers across the border, were trying to run down the hostiles.

General Miles pressed the pursuit with untiring vigor. The mountains where they were likely to go were thoroughly scouted. The renegades, in addition to the unspeakable Geronimo, included Natchez, son of the famous Cochise, and more than thirty others. These men knew the trails and passes and water-holes throughout the wild section, and being impeded by no baggage, were able for a long time to elude their pursuers. Our soldiers stationed guards at the water-holes, and the heliographic service, just introduced, flashed orders to troops in the field, from peak to peak, across immense areas of country.

The Renegades

Captain Lawton, of the Fourth Cavalry, kept up the pursuit of Geronimo's band and gave the Indians no rest. Frequently he dashed into their camp and captured their provisions and stock, but the warriors saved themselves by skurrying into the mountains; and the pursuit being still pressed, they hurried across the border into Mexico.

This, however, availed them nothing, for the soldiers (in accordance with an understanding with the Mexican authorities) galloped after them, and the Mexican troops joined in the pursuit. A few days later a deserter brought in news that Geronimo's band was encamped near the town of Fronteras, in the Sierra Madre, and that they were worn out and short of ammunition. The wily Geronimo was trying to make a treaty with the Mexicans which would leave him free to raid American territory.

Geronimo brought to Bay

Learning these facts, Lieutenant Charles B. Gatewood, of the Sixth Cavalry, volunteered to go into the Apache camp and try to persuade Geronimo to surrender. Gatewood spoke Apache, and was an old acquaintance of the great war chief, but the task he offered to perform was so perilous, as, in the opinion of his friends, to offer no hope and to involve the certain death of the daring officer. Gatewood was an experienced Indian fighter, and he knew that these ferocious miscreants were in the worst mood conceivable, because of being run down, and the probability was that he would be killed on the instant he placed himself within their reach. Nevertheless, he set out without hesitation, accompanied by two Chiricahua scouts.

The Apaches were encamped in an abandoned Jesuit mission village of old adobe houses, with an adobe wall around it. When

CABIN JOHN BRIDGE, NEAR WASHINGTON. FROM A WAR-TIME SKETCH

near the place, Gatewood dismounted, and leaving his horse in charge of the two scouts, walked into the village. The moment the Indians saw him, they caught up their guns. Gatewood laid down his carbine, and, recognizing Geronimo, beckoned to him to approach. The chief advanced, and the two sat down beside each other, on a pile of stones, for a talk, while the sullen warriors, a short distance away, grimly awaited the orders of their leader.

Lieut. Gatewood's daring

Almost the first words of Geronimo were a demand of the visitor as to whether he knew the risk he ran, and whether he expected to leave the place alive. The lieutenant's reply was the only one that could save his life:

"Of course you can kill me, but you are a great chief that I have known for years, and to whom I give my confidence. Could you gain anything by it? The Mexican troops are coming from the south, and we are only a few miles to the north. You will soon be surrounded; will you not be wise, therefore, in surrendering to us and in trusting to our honor?"

Opening the conversation in this way, Gatewood conducted it with exquisite tact. Knowing thoroughly the Indian character, he flattered the terrible chief, lulled his suspicion, roused his self-interest, and increased his fear of the consequences of continuing his raids and massacres. The officer saw that he had succeeded in interesting Geronimo, who finally promised, on the assurance of Gatewood that he should be allowed to come and go in safety, to visit Captain Lawton on the morrow for the purpose of having a talk with him.

This ended Lieutenant Gatewood's mission, and bidding the chief good-by, he walked out of the village unmolested and returned to camp. On the following day Geronimo visited Captain Lawton, and soon after the two set out for Fort Bowie to meet General Miles, the Apache band and Captain Lawton's command marching on parallel lines, and often encamping within sight of each other. Eleven days later they met General Miles at Skeleton Cañon, he being on his way from Fort Bowie. At this place Geronimo and Natchez, with their followers, surrendered upon the single condition that their lives should be spared. Geronimo, Natchez, and two of their warriors rode in an ambulance to Fort Bowie, the nearest railway station, the others following on foot. Thence they were sent eastward to Fort Pickens. Soon afterwards all of the Chiricahua and

Surrender of the Apaches

PERIOD VII — THE NEW UNITED STATES

Warm Spring Apaches remaining on the San Carlos reservation were removed to Fort Marion in Florida.*

Regarding the heroism displayed by Lieutenant Gatewood, Captain Charles Nordstrom says:

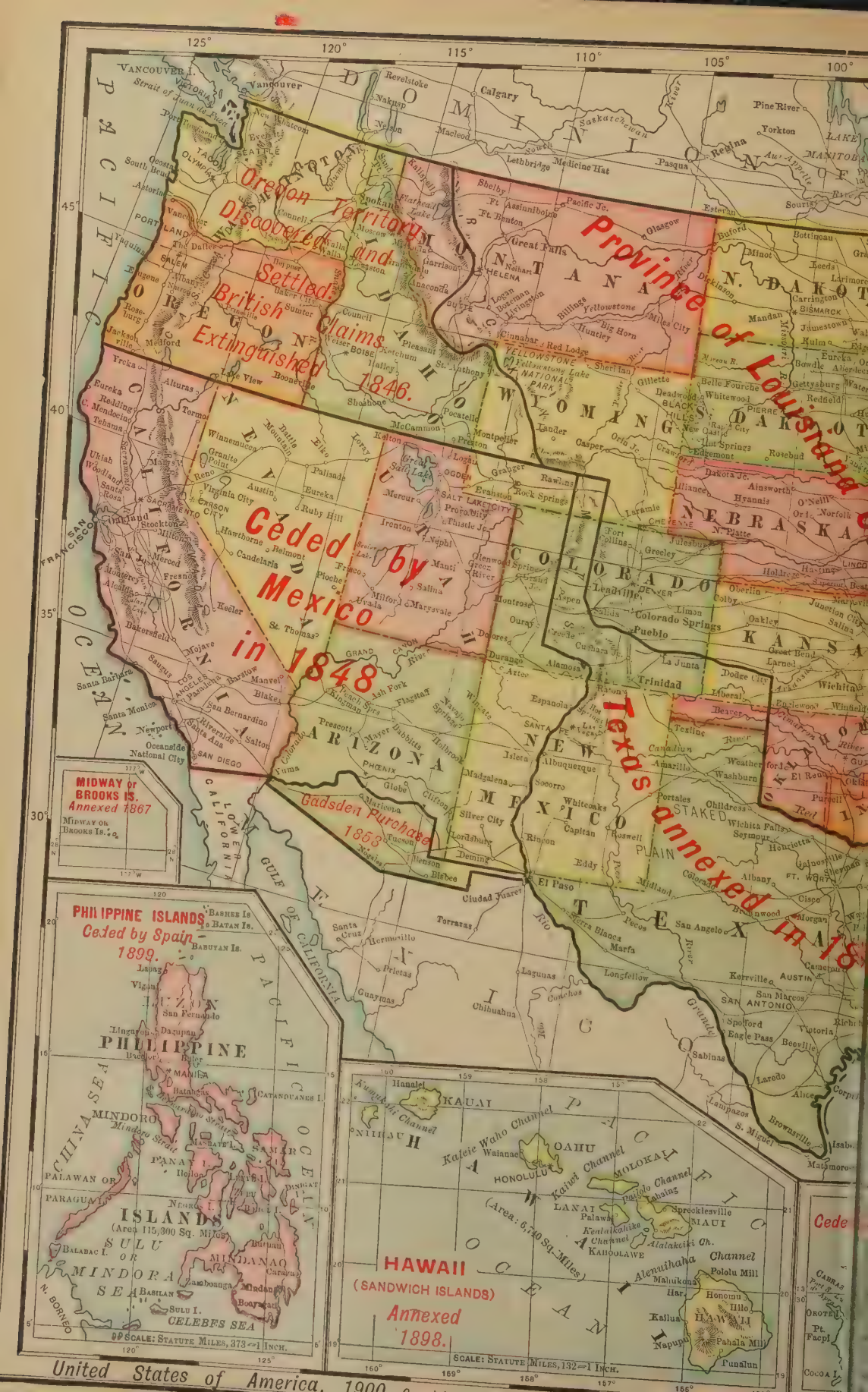
"When Lieutenant Gatewood volunteered to convey terms to Geronimo he knew that his life depended on the simple caprice of one of the most bloodthirsty savages on the American continent—

A GALLANT EXPLOIT

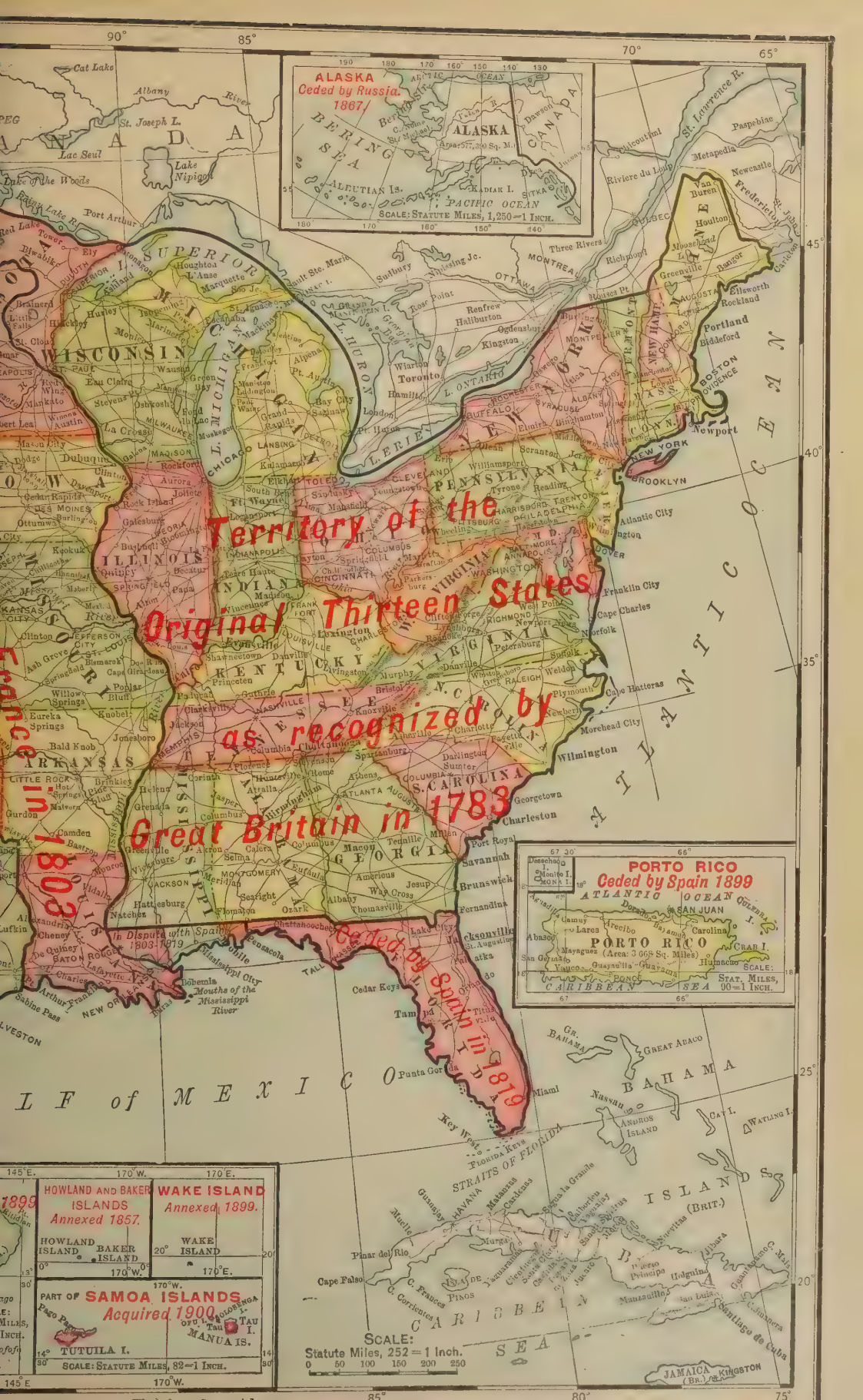
A Merited Tribute

that his chances of returning to his wife and babe alive were probably less than those that his 'scalp-lock' dangling from the end of a lodge-pole would furnish the enemy as they danced around it the enthusiasm necessary to continue the campaign. But if he thought of these things no one ever knew, and he departed upon his hazardous journey with the same nonchalance he would have prepared for his daily gallop. His mission proved successful—Geron-

* Another of the many exploits of our soldiers deserves record. In a fight in the Pointa Mountains, May 3, 1886, Lieutenant Powhatan H. Clark, of the Tenth Cavalry, dashed forwards at the risk of his life and carried off Corporal Scott, who was desperately wounded and lying helpless under a hot fire of the Apaches. This gallant officer was injured and drowned in the river near Fort Custer, Mont., in 1893.



United States of America, 1900


Territory of the Original Thirteen States as recognized by Great Britain in 1783
France in 1803
ALASKA
Ceded by Russia. 1867.
ALASKA
Area 577,390 Sq. Mi.
SCALE: STATUTE MILES, 1,250=1 INCH.
PORTO RICO
Ceded by Spain 1899
PORTO RICO
(Area: 3,668 Sq. Miles)
SCALE: STAT. MILES, 90=1 INCH.
HOWLAND AND BAKER ISLANDS
Annexed 1857.
WAKE ISLAND
Annexed 1899.
PART OF SAMOA ISLANDS
Acquired 1900
TUTUILA I.
SCALE: STATUTE MILES, 82=1 INCH.
SCALE:
Statute Miles, 252=1 Inch.
In Dispute with Spain 1803-1819
Ceded by Spain in 1819
Mouths of the Mississippi River
GULF of MEXICO
ATLANTIC OCEAN
CARIBBEAN SEA
BAHAMA ISLANDS
GREAT ABACO
ANDROS ISLAND
CAT I.
WATLING I.
STRAITS OF FLORIDA
Key West
Havana
Matanzas
Cardenas
Cienfuegos
Trinidad
Santiago de Cuba
Cape Falso
Pinar del Rio
Punta Gorda
Miami
Nassau
Jacksonville
Pensacola
Tampa
Cedar Keys
Charleston
Wilmington
Norfolk
Cape Hatteras
Cape Charles
Franklin City
Atlantic City
Brooklyn
Newport
Portland
Boston
Providence
Montreal
Quebec
Toronto
Ottawa
Detroit
Chicago
Milwaukee
Minneapolis
St. Paul
Duluth
Superior
Lake Superior
Lake Michigan
Lake Huron
Lake Erie
Lake Ontario
Lake Nipigon
Port Arthur
Albany
St. Joseph L.
Lac Seul
Cat Lake
Lake of the Woods
Red Lake
Rainy Lake
Sault Ste. Marie
Sudbury
Three Rivers
Richmond
Riviere du Loup
Metapedia
Paspebiac
Newcastle
Fredericton
St. John
Rockland
Ellsworth
Bangor
Augusta
Portland
Biddeford
Newport
Brooklyn
New York
Philadelphia
Baltimore
Washington
Richmond
Norfolk
Cape Charles
Franklin City
Atlantic City
Dover
Wilmington
Cape Hatteras
Morehead City
Charleston
Georgetown
Savannah
Brunswick
Fernandina
Jacksonville
St. Augustine
Pensacola
Tampa
Cedar Keys
Key West
Miami
Nassau
Punta Gorda
Cape Falso
Pinar del Rio
Havana
Matanzas
Cardenas
Cienfuegos
Trinidad
Santiago de Cuba
Jamaica
Kingston
Mouths of the Mississippi River
New Orleans
Galveston
Sabine Pass
Port Arthur
Lake Nipigon
Lake of the Woods
Cat Lake
Albany
St. Joseph L.
Lac Seul
Red Lake
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Sault Ste. Marie
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Cape Falso
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Cardenas
Cienfuegos
Trinidad
Santiago de Cuba
Jamaica
Kingston
Mouths of the Mississippi River
New Orleans
Galveston
Sabine Pass
Port Arthur

imo and his people, excepting a small band under Mangus—who later surrendered to Cooper, of the Tenth Cavalry—in due course surrendering unconditionally to General Miles at Fort Bowie. This was the second time that Gatewood had bearded the lion in his den.

"Geronimo had surrendered! The Southwest was wild with joy. Men shook hands, congratulating each other on the happy issue of the campaign; women kissed and wept in each other's arms, for their little ones were no longer in danger of having their throats cut or their brains battered out against the side of the cabin, while they looked on in anguish, knowing the worse fate in store for them. A feeling of unutterable relief and thankfulness was experienced by all, tempered, however, by the unnatural anxiety concerning the disposition to be made of the 'prisoners of war.' Geronimo had surrendered before, only to 'break out' again with renewed acts of fiendishness. 'Will he be allowed to do the same thing over again when he gets rested?' was the question asked on all sides.

General Rejoicing

"No man in this country has read the lessons of experience to greater advantage than General Miles, as his action at this stage amply demonstrated. His acquaintance with the previous history of the Indian question in Arizona, with a thorough knowledge of the Indian character, convinced him that again to turn Geronimo and his band loose as 'prisoners of war' to prey upon the people at their leisure, as had been done before, would be one of the most gigantic crimes of the nineteenth century, for the commission of which he did not propose to be held responsible. Promises of future good behavior did not avail; these had been made before, only to be broken. It was proposed to take no further chances, but to put it forever out of the power of these wild beasts to do further harm. And thus it happened that almost before the 'Indian Ring' on the one hand and the Indian Commission on the other knew that Geronimo was in our hands, he and his followers were shipped off to St. Augustine, the Indian Botany Bay, where in meditation upon his past misdeeds he had become a 'quiet, docile old man.'

The Renegades Brought Eastward

"Arizona and New Mexico took a long breath. The snake had not only been scotched, but virtually killed. Every town, from Albuquerque to Tucson, gave itself up to the joy of the hour. Fêtes were organized, balls and parties were given, and every one without regard to past affiliations did all in his power to honor him who had courageously delivered the people from the deadly menace

PERIOD VII — THE NEW UNITED STATES

of a merciless foe. The name of Miles was on every lip, his praises sung by all.

"Geronimo's deportation marks the commencement of a period of prosperity unequalled in the history of the two Territories since they were added to the national domain as one of the results of the

THE END OF IT ALL

Prosperity in the Two Territories

Mexican war. The people who but yesterday were fleeing their borders prepared to remain, and a tide of immigration set in that has continued ever since. The wife and mother no longer kissed her husband good-by, as he went forth to his daily vocations, with the sickening fear that he might be brought back to her cold in

NATIONAL CEMETERY, RICHMOND, VA.

death, the victim of some sneaking Apache's bullet; the husband and father departed to his mine or ranch, cheered by the certainty that on his return he would not find his cabin in ashes, his children murdered and mutilated, his wife gone, but where he left it in the morning—his loved ones running to meet him, the glad smile of conscious security mantling their happy faces. Is it to be wondered that these people love Nelson A. Miles?

Sheridan's Bon Mot

"It was the writer's good fortune to be present when General Sheridan gave utterance to that *bon mot* which has since become so celebrated. It was in January, 1869, in camp at old Fort Cobb, Indian Territory, now Oklahoma, shortly after Custer's fight with Black-kettle's band of Cheyennes. Old Toch-a-way (Turtle Dove), a chief of the Comanches, on being presented to Sheridan, desired to impress the General in his favor, and striking himself a resounding blow on the breast, he managed to say: 'Me, Toch-a-way; me good Injun.' A quizzical smile lit up the General's face as he set those standing by in a roar by saying: 'The only good Indians I ever saw were dead.'"

At about ten o'clock at night, August 31, 1886, Richmond, Va., was violently shaken by an earthquake, an experience so new and startling that the city was thrown into wild excitement. Columbia, S. C., received a more severe shock, the buildings swaying back and forth, while the terrified inhabitants rushed into the streets in their night-robes. There were lesser shocks at Memphis, Nashville, Raleigh, Chattanooga, Selma, Lynchburg, Norfolk, St. Louis, Mobile, Louisville, Wilmington (Del.), Wilmington (N. C.), Cleveland, Chicago, and as far north as Albany, N. Y.

The Charleston Earthquake

None of these cities, however, suffered to the extent of Charleston, S. C. Telegraphic communication with the rest of the world was cut off, and the fear spread that the city had been utterly destroyed—a fear that happily proved unfounded.

It was a few minutes before ten in the evening that the first shock was felt in Charleston. From the rocking, tumbling buildings the people rushed shrieking into the streets, many believing that the last day of all things had come. Ten distinct shocks were felt at intervals of half an hour, gradually growing less severe, so that the last was only a tremor. The disturbances started several fires, and twenty buildings were burned before the flames were under control.

No element of terror was lacking. The affrighted people camped in the open streets or fled to the country for refuge.

To the close of September, there were thirty-four recorded shocks; twenty-eight were noted in October, and fourteen in November. Most of them were slight, but the deaths numbered more than a hundred; $10,000,000 damage was done, and two-thirds of the city required rebuilding.

Extent of the Disturbances

Most of the domestic disturbances in this country are due to foreigners, many of whom flee from their own homes to escape punishment for their crimes. Among the thousands that flock to our shores are the very dregs of society in the Old World, the worst of whom are the Anarchists, who scoff at religion and the most sacred of ordinances, and whose aim in life is to destroy existing governments by means of violence and murder.

As shown elsewhere, the country was disturbed by numerous strikes in 1886. The demand was made in Chicago and New York that eight instead of ten hours should constitute a full day's work. Many of the disputes were settled by compromise, but generally the demand was refused. Because of this, 40,000 workmen in Chicago went on a strike. They were mainly iron-workers, brick-makers, lumbermen, freight handlers, and factory hands.

On Monday, May 3, a swarm of men, incited by the pestilent Anarchists, and numbering more than 10,000, attacked the McCormick Reaper Works, on Western Avenue. In the midst of the turmoil, a patrol-wagon, containing twelve policemen, hurried to the spot. Drawing their revolvers, they faced the mob, which had doubled in numbers, and ordered them to disperse. They replied with a volley of stones. Then the police fired over their heads and were jeered at. When this had occurred twice, the officers aimed directly at the rioters and hit several. The mob returned the fire, but harmed no one.

Anarchistic Riot in Chicago

Other patrol-wagons dashed up, and the police forced back the strikers and cleared the streets. The trembling workmen in McCormick's Works were brought out and escorted home, amid the taunting of the people at the windows and on the sidewalks.

On the evening of Tuesday some three thousand men and boys gathered at the old Haymarket Plaza, Des Plaines and Randolph streets, in answer to a call circulated by handbills printed in English and German. Most of the men were armed, expecting a collision

with the police. In the midst of a wild harangue by one of the Anarchists, Inspector Bonfield with a column of policemen forced his way through the mob to the wagon which the speakers used as a platform, and commanded the orator to cease and the crowd to disperse. The mob answered with stones and hoots and grew more demonstrative because of the forbearance of the officers.

The Dynamite Bomb

In the midst of the confusion, some person standing at the entrance to an alley opening on Des Plaines Street (or in the wagon), hurled a small, thin object, which spat fire as it dropped to the ground in front of the body of policemen. It was a dynamite bomb, and the next moment it exploded with awful effect. Seven policemen were killed, eleven crippled for life, and twelve so badly hurt that they were unfit for duty for more than a year. Despite the appalling result, Inspector Bonfield and the remainder of his men charged upon and scattered the rioters.

The leaders in this horrible outrage were arrested and brought to trial. They were found guilty, several hanged, and a number sentenced to long terms of imprisonment. Governor Altgeld, himself a German, however, in 1893 pardoned all who were left, on the ground that their trial was not a fair one. Yet there never was a fairer trial. It is unquestionably correct law that the overt act of any band of conspirators truly interprets the criminality of all the preceding steps. All are responsible for what is done by each in pursuance of the common purpose. Never was guilt more clearly established. It may be added that Governor Altgeld's fondness for setting criminals free led him, during the latter part of his last gubernatorial term, to include among those pardoned some that he himself had sentenced when on the bench.

Since the Chicago crime a reaction has set in against Anarchists, and they have caused little trouble during the last few years.

Death of Gen. Sheridan

General Philip Sheridan died after a painful illness at Nonquitt, Mass., August 5, 1888. He was born in Albany, N. Y., March 6, 1831. He received the advantages of a common school education, and was appointed to West Point in 1848. He was compelled to pass an extra year in the institution because of a fight with another cadet, and was graduated thirty-fourth in a class of fifty-two. He served on the frontier and in Washington and Oregon. His commission as first lieutenant was dated March 1, 1861, and when he came East to play his part in the great drama of the Civil War, it

was with the ambition of winning a captaincy before the struggle was over. He won that rank two months later, and in a little more

GENERAL PHILIP SHERIDAN

than a year was commissioned colonel of the Second Michigan Cavalry. He commanded a brigade and did brilliant work at Booneville, July 1, 1862. His commission as brigadier-general bore date

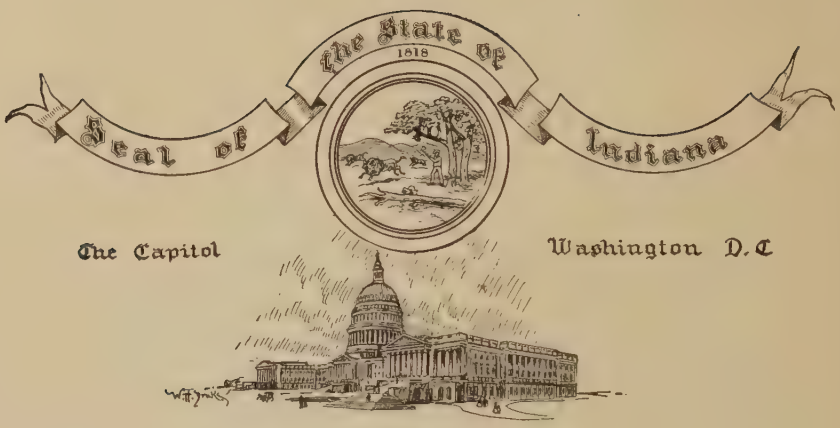
of the day of the battle. He assumed command of a division, and showed marked skill at Perryville, in the following October. In the terrific engagement at Murfreesboro, Sheridan held for several hours the key-point, and displayed dauntless bravery and fine generalship. His commission as major-general bore the date of December 31, 1862, the day on which the battle opened. He distinguished himself again in the struggle with Bragg at Chickamauga, and his division was the first to pass the crest of the ridge at Lookout Mountain and Missionary Ridge. When Grant was made lieutenant-general of the United States, he appointed Sheridan (April 4, 1864) to the command of the cavalry of the Army of the Potomac, where his services did much to hasten the conclusion of the struggle. He was made lieutenant-general March 4, 1869, and a few days later assumed command of the Division of Missouri, with headquarters at Chicago. He visited Europe during the Franco-German war, 1870–71, and was present as spectator at some of the most important engagements. He succeeded General Sherman, on his retirement, in command of the armies of the United States, November 1, 1883, and received his commission as general while he lay stricken with mortal illness.

Career of Gen. Sheridan

In the Presidential election of 1888, eight tickets were put forward. The Democratic was Grover Cleveland, of New York, and Allan G. Thurman, of Ohio; the Republican, Benjamin Harrison, of Indiana, and Levi P. Morton, of New York. In addition, the Prohibition ticket was headed by Clinton B. Fisk, of New Jersey; the Union Labor, by A. J. Streeter, of Illinois; the United Labor by Robert J. Coudret, of Illinois; the American Labor by James L. Curtis, of New York; the Industrial Reform, by Albert E. Redstone, of California, and the Equal Rights by Belva A. Lockwood, of Washington, D. C.

Presidential Election of 1888

Only an insignificant support was received by the last six tickets named. Harrison carried every Northern State except New Jersey, and received 233 electoral votes to 168 for Cleveland.



CHAPTER LXXXV

HARRISON'S ADMINISTRATION, 1889–93

[*Authorities:* The saddest matter chronicled in this chapter is the awful disaster at Johnstown, Pa. That catastrophe, like the great Chicago fire, furnished abundant evidence that, while mankind is pre-eminently selfish, there are thousands of people sufficiently otherwise to come promptly to the aid of those that suffer from these unavoidable calamities. Aid in every possible shape, including hundreds of thousands of dollars, was promptly sent, and a profound sympathy was felt for the victims of that flood not only in the United States, but throughout civilized Europe. The dream of the altruist is that a feeling of the common brotherhood of man should grow in intensity until injury to one is recognized as an injury to all. The slaughter of the Armenians by the Turks furnishes another illustration of the manner in which the thoughtful people of the world can be wrought upon by human suffering. The shameful impotence of the "Powers of Europe" shows how the best instincts of our humanity are blighted and made of no avail by the jealousies of politics and the temporizing policy of diplomacy.]

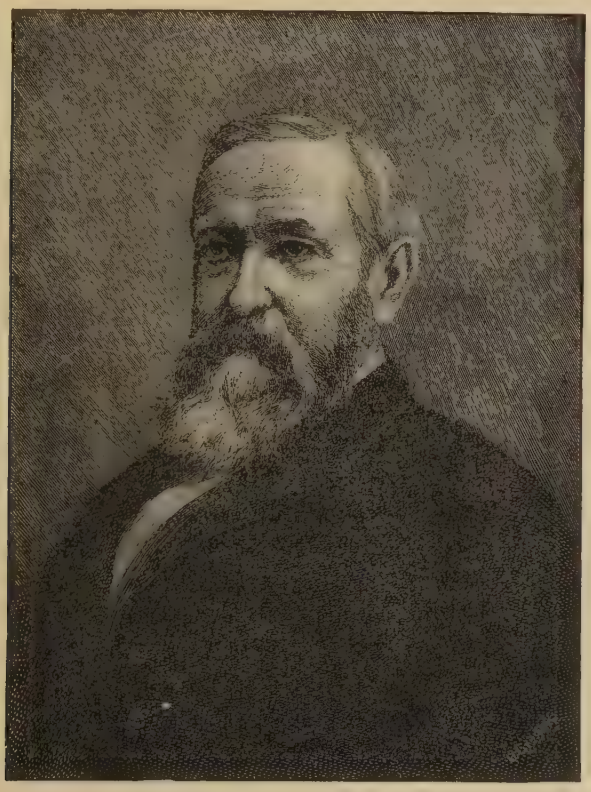
Statuary Hall at the Capitol

BENJAMIN HARRISON was born at North Bend, Ohio, August 20, 1833, and is the son of John Scott Harrison, who was the son of the ninth President. He was an excellent student in his youth, and early attracted attention by his skill in debate while in attendance at Miami University, Oxford, Ohio. He became a law student in Cincinnati, and married Miss Lavinia Scott before his admission to the bar. When he became a lawyer he settled in Indianapolis, which has since been his home.

Harrison volunteered early in the war, and was appointed colonel of the Seventh Indiana, which he raised. He was a brave and skilful officer, and on the urgent recommendation of General Hooker was made a brigadier-general. He was prostrated by an almost fatal

illness for a time, but recovered to render excellent service, and, joining Sherman at Goldsborough, commanded a brigade to the close of the war. He was elected United States Senator in 1880, and served the full term.

The Cabinet chosen by President Harrison included: James G. Blaine, Secretary of State; William Windom, Secretary of the



BENJAMIN HARRISON

Treasury (he died in 1891, and was succeeded by Charles Foster); Redfield Proctor, Secretary of War (succeeded in 1891 by Stephen B. Elkins); William H. H. Miller, Attorney-General; John Wanamaker, Postmaster-General; Benjamin F. Tracy, Secretary of the Navy; John W. Noble, Secretary of the Interior; Jeremiah M. Rusk, Secretary of Agriculture.

Naval Disaster at Samoa

On the 15th of March, 1889, a hurricane destroyed or crippled all the American and German warships in the harbor of Apia, Samoa.

PERIOD VII
THE NEW UNITED STATES

They were anchored near each other when the terrific gale broke upon them. The engines were started, but the ships dragged their anchors and became helpless. The German gunboat *Eber* first struck the coral reef and turned keel upwards. The brave Samoans, forgetting the enmity of the sufferers, rushed into the water and saved one officer and four men, the loss being five officers and sixty-six men. The German flagship *Adler* was lifted to the top of the reef and thrown on one side. Of the one hundred and thirty officers and men, twenty were drowned or killed when the ship capsized; the rest swam to the wreck, and clung to the rigging and spars until taken off. The American steamer *Nipsic*, by fine handling, kept clear of the reef and was successfully beached. The German corvette *Olga*, after striking nearly every other vessel, was beached on a sand-flat. The British corvette *Calliope*, having the most powerful engines, slipped her cable and by a narrow chance succeeded in reaching the open sea. The U. S. steamer *Vandalia* was carried on the reef near shore and sank. Nearly all who tried to swim to land were drowned, while those who clung to the rigging were swept off by the *Trenton*, which floated by a few hours later, some falling in the water and some on the deck of the *Trenton*, which was then thrown on the beach in front of the American consulate. The *Nipsic* lost seven men; the *Vandalia* five officers and thirty-nine men, and the *Trenton* one man. On June 14, 1889, Germany, England, and the United States guaranteed the independence and neutrality of Samoa.

Along the western slope of the Alleghany Mountains, in Pennsylvania, winds the beautiful Conemaugh Valley. Sweeping to the southwest to Johnstown, it curves northwesterly to New Florence, sixteen miles distant. Johnstown, with its 30,000 inhabitants, is 39 miles from Altoona and 78 from Pittsburg, and the Pennsylvania Railway takes the course of the Conemaugh valley for 25 miles. In Johnstown are the Cambria Iron Works, with 6,000 employees.

The Johnstown Flood

At the head of a small lateral valley, extending some six miles from South Fork to the southeast, was the Conemaugh Lake Reservoir, owned by the South Fork Hunting and Fishing Club of Pittsburg. It was nearly a hundred yards above the level of Johnstown, a mile and a half wide at its broadest part, and extended back two and a half miles, with a depth in many places of over a hundred feet. The reservoir was by far the largest in America. The weight of the

volume of water thus held motionless by a single dam was inconceivable.

Below this dam, it will be remembered, curved the deep Cone-

SISTERS OF CHARITY BUILDING (AFTER THE FLOOD)

maugh Valley, half a mile wide, with steep mountain walls as its boundaries. It turned at almost right angles upon reaching Johnstown, with clusters of villages above and below, in which lived the

employees of the Cambria Iron Works. The dimensions of the dam were 1,000 feet in length, 110 feet in height, 25 feet thick at the top, and 90 feet at the base. It was fatally weak, because it was made wholly of earth and had no "heart wall," while, instead of crowning in the middle, it was two feet lower there than anywhere else. The discharge-pipe at the foot of the dam had been closed, and the rock spellway was choked by a grating to prevent the escape of fish.

This prodigious mass of water had kept the people below in a state of alarm for years. More than once they were thrown into panic by reports of the dam giving way under pressure of the floods, and many protests were made to the owners of the reservoir. All that they did was to have an inspection made by an engineer, who invariably reported that the dam was secure and there was no cause for fear. So in time the people believed the reports.

Signs of Danger

There were protracted rain-storms in the month of May, 1889, causing a great increase in the volume of water above the dam. It rose so fast that two engineers ordered the gang of men at work to open a sluiceway to relieve the pressure. They toiled with might and main, but the water continued to rise, and the danger was so imminent that several messengers were sent down the valley to warn the people. Between two and three o'clock the water pouring over the top of the dam was a foot deep and rapidly increasing. The dam was certain to give way in a short time.

Engineer Park leaped upon a horse, and, pale with excitement, for he saw the awful peril, sped down the valley, with his animal on a dead run. As he thundered past the houses and through the villages and towns, he swung his arm and shouted:

"Run to the hills! the flood is coming! Lose not a minute or you are lost!"

Sad to say, this warning, like the cry of "Wolf!" had been repeated so often that only a few people believed it. Some made their way up the mountain slopes, while others calmly talked over the matter and decided there was no cause for misgiving.

Breakage of the Dam

Engineer Park, almost frantic with excitement, was still hoarsely calling to the people to flee, when, at three o'clock in the afternoon, 300 feet in the middle of the dam suddenly slipped forward, as if on wheels, and then dissolved and disappeared like so much cobweb. Through this huge gate plunged a volume of water, forced to a height

and depth of two hundred feet, and lashed by the miles of lake behind to a speed higher than that of an express railway train. It is six miles to South Fork, and the distance was passed in a few seconds more than three minutes, while all the water left the reservoir in less than an hour.

Appalling as was the velocity of the flood from the moment of starting, it became still greater. Its momentum was terrific beyond conception. The viaduct at South Fork was swept out of existence the instant it was struck, and the portage road was scoured for miles. Whirling about, the flood went down the valley like an arrow discharged straight at Johnstown, and charging at a pace greater than

VIEW OF DEBRIS AND STONE BRIDGE (AFTER THE FLOOD)

two miles a minute. It is eighteen miles from Conemaugh Lake to Johnstown, and the distance was passed in seven minutes!

Terrific Force of the Flood

The force of this mass of water rushing down the valley was incredible. The largest trees were snatched up by the roots, like so many straws, and flung high in the air or hammered sideways into the ground; rocks weighing hundreds of tons were rolled over and over like the wheels of a bicycle, and hurled aside as a boy would throw a ball; houses were playthings, and trees, rocks, and dwellings

were jumbled and churned together and carried resistlessly forward in the grasp of the current.

At East Conemaugh, thirty-two locomotives, with cars, side-tracks, switches, and rails, were wrenched loose in an instant, and the flood played battledore with them. The engines, weighing twenty-five tons apiece, bobbed about and dipped among the débris in the current like so many corks, while the enormous mass of wreckage thus jammed in the middle of the torrent, where its speed was greater than at the sides, formed something in the nature of a solid head to the herculean battering-ram that was spinning down the Conemaugh Valley.

The borough of Franklin was wiped out, a few persons living higher up the mountain side escaping. The 500 houses in Woodvale, almost opposite Johnstown, were compact and firm and safe, and two minutes later had vanished, and with them many lives.

Incredible Speed of the Current

The flood which hurled itself directly against Johnstown was fifty feet high, half a mile wide, and thundering forward at the rate of two and a half miles a minute. In places the muddy water could hardly be seen because of the machinery, locomotives, fly-wheels, boilers, a hundred miles of twisted barbed iron wire, steel rails, trees, logs, houses, bricks, rocks, bowlders, and struggling men, women, and children that were tumbled and tossed about as if they were tennis balls.

Johnstown was struck by two divisions of the flood. The left swept over the flat at the base of the mountain and shot across the southeastern part of the city to Stony Creek, which had overflowed a number of streets. The right and central division plunged through the city, and kept to the course of Conemaugh Creek until, strange as it may seem, it collided with an artificial obstacle which it could not displace. The Pennsylvania Railway bridge to the west of Johnstown was so perfect a piece of masonry that it stood as solid as a mountain wall. The wreckage quickly choked the arches, and made the bridge itself an immovable dam. The water thus checked sheered off and struck the left division, which had just wiped out Kernville and Glendale. The two volumes of water met in the middle of Johnstown.

It was an extraordinary meeting, the two floods flying at each other as if each were jealous of the destruction done by the other. They spun round and round in a huge whirlpool, which completed the destruction of the city.

The only portion of Johnstown that escaped was the more elevated section, several strong buildings in the middle of the city, which, by some freak of the whirlpool, eluded its full force; a row of stone and

VIEW OF MAIN STREET (AFTER THE FLOOD)

brick structures near the railroad, the office of the Cambria Iron Works, several business blocks, and the telegraph-office. Only the walls of the business block were left. The villages below were utterly destroyed.

JOHNSTOWN, PA. (PRESENT TIME)

The firmness of the railway bridge and the clogging of its arches caused the fast accumulating waters to pour over this newly formed dam, while the wreckage stretched from shore to shore, and was piled a dozen feet above the structure. This stuff weighed thousands of tons, fifty feet deep, and extending a sixth of a mile back from the bridge. It consisted of houses, locomotives, trees, timber, machinery, furniture, and household utensils, tied inextricably together by hundreds of miles of barbed wire from the Gautier Mills. In the houses and portions of houses many people were imprisoned by the buildings, that were so wrenched that escape was impossible. While the fast-gathering crowds were striving to release the prisoners, the wreckage took fire, from some cause unknown, and scores must have been burned to death.

Check at the Railway Bridge

Pennsylvania promptly sent troops to Johnstown to preserve order and distribute relief. Miss Clara Barton, with a large number of members of the Red Cross Society, and a force of physicians, hurried to the scene, and everything possible was done for the relief of the sufferers. The country at large showed its sympathy by contributing nearly $3,000,000 to the relief fund, of which New York and Philadelphia each gave $500,000. The official list of dead was 2,280, of whom 770 were never identified. No doubt fully 3,000 people perished, some of the remains not being found until three years after the flood. Of the relief fund, $65,000 was expended in erecting the Conemaugh Valley Memorial Hospital, which was dedicated February 4, 1892. On May 31 following a monument to the memory of the victims, and costing $6,500, was unveiled. The owners of the faulty dam of course were never punished.*

The "Mafia"

One of the most vicious bands of miscreants anywhere is the "Mafia" among the Italians. It includes assassins who do not hesitate to take the lives of those whom they dislike, and who will commit murder to shield any of their number from punishment.

Among the energetic foes of this atrocious band was David C.

* Among the many strange incidents connected with this calamity none was more remarkable than that of John T. Sharkey and his wife. In the fearful struggle for life, during the flood, they became separated, and each was convinced that the other was drowned. Mr. Sharkey worked in Philadelphia, Baltimore, and other eastern cities, and finally on Monday, April 26, 1897, he arrived at Roanoke, Va. While walking along the street he came face to face with his wife, who lived near and had visited the town to do some shopping. Neither had married, both had saved considerable money, and after their singular separation for eight years, they again resumed the journey of life together.

PERIOD VII
THE NEW UNITED STATES

Hennessy, Chief of Police of New Orleans. In the face of threats, he traced a number of murders to members of the Mafia, and would have brought the criminals to justice had he not been shot down at midnight, near his own door, October 15, 1890.

When the crime became known, the city was thrown into uncontrollable rage. A number of suspected Italians were arrested and imprisoned. Several were identified as among the assassins, and one of them, Antonio Scaffedi, was killed in his cell by Thomas Duffy, a newspaper carrier.

Assassination of Chief Hennessy

Of the Italians arrested, nineteen were indicted. Nine were placed on trial, and conclusive proof was brought forward that the fatal shots were fired by Antonio Scaffedi, Antonio Marchesi, Manuel Politz, Antonio Bagnetto, and Monasterio. To the dismay of the city, six of the Italians were acquitted, and a mis-trial was entered in the case of the other three.

Beyond a doubt the jury had been corrupted, and the verdict was intolerable. The citizens, including the most prominent men in New Orleans, came together and openly resolved to take the matter in their own hands. Marching to the parish prison, on the 14th of April, they demanded the keys. Being refused, they broke in the door and sixty armed men entered. The Italians had been given a chance to hide themselves, but they were quickly found. Nine, including five of those awaiting trial, were shot to death. Marchesi was only a boy and was spared. Politz and Bagnetto were hanged outside the jail in full sight of the excited populace.

Great as was the provocation of the citizens, their killing of five of the prisoners could not be justified, for they had not been brought to trial, and their guilt or innocence remained to be established. It was claimed that four were subjects of King Humbert, and Italy took official action in the matter. Through Baron Fava, her minister, she sent a protest, which was indorsed by mass-meetings of Italians in New York, Chicago, Pittsburg, and other cities.

Anger of the Italian Government

Upon learning of the tragedy, Secretary Blaine sent a letter to Governor Nicholls, of Louisiana, expressing the deep regret of the United States Government, and called upon him to bring the offenders to justice. The governor replied that the whole subject was under investigation by the grand jury. This information was sent to Baron Fava, but his government, who seemed not to understand the methods which the Constitution compels us to follow under the

circumstances, was dissatisfied, and ordered Baron Fava to return home.

Subsequently Italy modified its demand. Secretary Blaine replied with dignity and courtesy, but the investigation dragged in New Orleans. Finally, Detective Dominick C. O'Malley and five others were indicted for attempting to bribe talesmen and thus to pack the jury, an act which was the direct cause of the tragedy. Concerning the persons engaged in the lynching, it appeared that most of the citizens of New Orleans were involved.

Tampering with Justice

Investigation showed that eight of the eleven Italians killed were American citizens. Another had renounced his allegiance to King Humbert, preparatory to becoming a citizen. This left two that were Italian subjects, but it was established that they were criminals, and were in this country in defiance of the immigration laws, and, therefore, were not entitled to protection.

The result of the investigation was not pleasing to Italy, but she showed a more conciliatory disposition than at first, and the United States met the advances in the same spirit. A mutually satisfactory conclusion was reached, when our Government agreed to pay the families of the victims the sum of $20,000, on the understanding that the action should not be taken as an acknowledgment of Federal liability for the failure of the Louisiana authorities to protect the lives of Italian subjects, but only as an evidence of American good will towards Italy. The offer was accepted, and the former cordial relations between the countries were re-established.

About this time it looked as if we were to become involved in a war with Chili. That country, which is one of the most powerful and warlike in South America, revolted against the government of Balmaceda and was successful. The insurgents charged that Patrick Egan, our minister, gave aid to the Balmacedists, and allowed many to find refuge at the Legation at Santiago. At the close of September, 1891, the angry insurgents had prevented many persons from entering and leaving the Legation, arrested American citizens, and, it may be said, held the place in a state of siege. Matters were so threatening that the United States steamer *San Francisco* was sent to join the *Baltimore*, the only American man-of-war in Chilian waters.

Threatened War with Chili

The irritation against Americans was increased by the charge that Admiral Brown, of the *San Francisco*, had given secret information

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THE NEW UNITED STATES

to the Balmacedists,—a charge for which there were no grounds. Still other accusations of bad faith were made against the Americans, who were heartily hated by the Chilians that had helped to win in the revolution.

The Affair at Valparaiso

Having been given leave of absence, some forty men of the *Baltimore*, on the 16th of October, 1891, went ashore at Valparaiso, all being in uniform, but without weapons. Sailors under such circumstances are likely to be boisterous, and no doubt the Americans were somewhat disorderly. At any rate, one of them was soon involved in a wrangle with a citizen. It was like a spark to a pile of powder. Almost in an instant the Americans were fiercely assailed on every side by a mob with knives and firearms. The sailors defended themselves with great bravery, but were at fatal disadvantage. Charles W. Riggin, boatswain's mate of the *Baltimore*, was killed, and William Turnbull, a coal-heaver, mortally hurt, while others were badly wounded. The Americans were arrested and misused while being taken to prison, but they were soon set free, as no criminal charge could be brought against them.

In obedience to orders from Washington, Captain Schley, of the *Baltimore*, made a prompt investigation of the affair. He reported that Riggin was set upon and beaten while riding in a street car, and then dragged out, and killed by a pistol shot; that the police were brutal in arresting the men; that a number of the wounds were made by bayonets, proving that the police took part in the assault, and that the Americans gave no cause for the attack. Captain Schley did not forget to note one fact—a number of the police and of the sailors of the Chilian fleet did their utmost to protect the Americans.

As directed by our Government, Minister Egan called the attention of the Chilian authorities to the report of Captain Schley, asked for their statement of the case, and notified them that if the facts were found as reported by Captain Schley, full reparation would be insisted upon.

Curtness of the Chilian Government

The reply to this was that no weight could be given to the American officer's report; that the matter was under investigation by the Chilian authorities, who promised to judge and punish the guilty; that since judicial investigation under Chilian law is secret, the time had not come to make known the result; and finally, that the demands of the United States could not be agreed to.

This reply was almost insulting. President Harrison referred to

ATTACK ON AMERICAN SAILORS AT VALPARAISO

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FROM THE ORIGINAL DRAWING B CHARLES KENDRICK

PERIOD VII
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it as "offensive," but awaited the official verdict. The inquiry came to an end January 8, 1892, and declared that the incident was started by a brawl between drunken sailors of both nations, and that the police did all they could to suppress th disorder. Señor Manuel Matta charged in the Chilian Senate that the American minister and consul at Valparaiso had kept back testimony which would have cleared up the matter. Matta sent a circular to the Chilian Legations in the United States, directly charging falsehood against the American minister and the American naval officers in their reports to Washington, and making discourteous references to Secretary Tracy and the President of the United States.

Settlement of the Dispute

A sharp correspondence took place between the nations, and the United States gave Chili the choice of war or, 1, an apology for the attack on the sailors of the *Baltimore;* 2, an indemnity to the sailors injured, and to the families of those killed by the mob; 3, the withdrawal of Matta's insulting letter.

Chili hesitated, but complied with all these demands, a note to that effect reaching Washington, January 27, 1892. She offered to leave to the decision of the United States Supreme Court the question of payment for the acts of the mob at Valparaiso. Thus once more was dissipated the rising war-cloud. *

* This award, amounting to $75,000, was distributed by the Secretary of the Navy, February 9, 1893, as follows: To the families of those killed, namely, Charles W. Riggin, boatswain's mate, and William Turnbull, coal-heaver, $10,000 each. To those seriously injured: Jeremiah Anderson, coal-heaver, $5,500; John Hamilton, carpenter's mate, $5,000; John W. Talbot, seaman apprentice, $4,000; John H. Davidson, landsman, $3,000; George Panter, coal-heaver, $2,500; William Lacey, coal-heaver, $2,000; Herman Fredericks, seaman, $1,500; Henry C. Jarrett, seaman, $1,500; John McBride, oiler, $1,500; John Butler, seaman apprentice, $1,500. To those assaulted and detained in prison, eighteen in number, sums ranging from $1,200 down to $700. To those arrested or slightly injured, twenty-three in number, sums ranging from $500 down to $300.

Indian Encampment

CHAPTER LXXXVI

HARRISON'S ADMINISTRATION, 1889–1893—(CONTINUED)

[*Authorities:* A well-known and safe induction established by innumerable facts in the history of the race is that an inferior civilization coming into contact with a civilization that is superior is destroyed. The story of the Aborigines of Peru and of Mexico, the disappearance of some North American Indian tribes, and the rapid decrease of the negro population are illustrations of the operation of this law. For it is a law,—pitiless, relentless, not to be escaped. It is, besides, irremediable. The higher civilization may be a kindly one, and seek to use its good offices to prevent the destruction of the other, but such efforts are always in vain. Mr. Spencer has condensed the formal statement of the law into his celebrated phrase, "the survival of the fittest." Nature puts a premium upon fineness of physical and mental fibre. By such means she is slowly moving the human race towards that period called the Millennium. In this chapter we have a description of one of the last acts in the drama of the red man's journey towards the "setting sun." It is a piteous drama, and one calculated to stir the sympathy of the philanthropist. The authorities for this and following chapters are many and various. Contemporary publications have been carefully consulted.]

THE most terrible Indian war in the history of our country impended during the winter of 1890–91. The cause need not be given, for it has always been the same, and doubtless will be to the end. The Indian Bureau was dishonest to the core, and the red men were cheated right along, the white plunderers acquiring immense fortunes by their dishonesty, and none ever being punished therefor.

The most powerful of the Indian tribes are the Sioux, who number probably 30,000. They occupied the Sioux Reservation, 35,000 square miles in extent, and slightly larger than the State of Maine. In this reservation are five agencies: Standing Rock, Cheyenne

River, Brule, Rosebud, and Pine Ridge, their distances apart varying from one to two hundred miles.

Two Classes of Sioux

There are two distinct divisions or classes among the Sioux—the progressive, who till the land, dislike war, are anxious to improve their condition, and are partly Christianized; and the non-progressive, who are eager for war and pillage, hate the white men and other tribes, and are fond of excitement. The leader of this reactionary

ISSUING OXEN TO INDIANS AT STANDING ROCK AGENCY

party was Sitting Bull, who had much to do with the massacre of Custer and his cavalry in 1876. He was always an enemy of the white men, and, when there was peace, was sullen and moody, longing for the occasion to strike a blow at the people whom he execrated. He was a medicine man and chieftain, born in Dakota in 1837.

The "Messiah Craze"

What is known as the "Messiah craze" appeared among the Indians early in 1890, and spread like a prairie-fire. A warrior claimed to have received a revelation from the Messiah to the effect that He had once come to save the white race, but they despised and killed Him. Now He rejected them, and would come in the spring,

destroy the whites, but save his red children. All who believed in him were to wear a certain kind of dress and to practise the Ghost Dance as often and as long as they could. Should any one die of exhaustion while thus engaged, he would be taken directly to the Messiah, and enjoy the companionship of those gone before, and all would come back to earth to tell what they had seen.

When the Messiah appeared in the spring, he would create a new earth, which would cover the present world, and bury the whites and

INDIAN GHOST DANCERS

all the red men that did not take part in the dance. Then the earth should be as it was centuries ago, except that there should be no more death.

The Ghost Dancers

Such in brief was the new faith. The Ghost Dancers appeared everywhere. They wore short calico skirts, and joining hands, swung around in a circle, going faster and faster, becoming wilder and more frantic each minute, until when nature could stand the delirium no longer they dropped to the ground and lay as if dead. The medicine man solemnly declared that they were dead, and were then visiting the spirit world, and would soon return to describe their marvellous experience.

PERIOD VII — THE NEW UNITED STATES

Sitting Bull saw in this new delusion his opportunity for mischief. He sent his messengers among Big Foot's band on the Cheyenne River Reserve, the Lower Brules, farther down the Missouri, the

"SITTING BULL"

Upper Brules, or Spotted Tail's people, at Rosebud, and the aged Red Cloud's followers among the Ogalallas at Pine Ridge. There were many discontented fanatics among those people, made doubly

DEATH OF SITTING BULL.

fierce by their dishonest treatment, and they determined to co-operate with Sitting Bull.

At the beginning of the winter of 1890, some 4,000 agency Indians were encamped at Pine Ridge. They had given up their outlying villages, churches, and schools. Twenty-five miles away on Wounded Knee Creek were 2,000 Brules and Wazazas in tents. They furnished many recruits for Sitting Bull, but hesitated about coming into the agency because of the troops. The Brules, however, "enlisted," and, stealing horses and cattle, rode towards the Bad Lands, and were ready to join in hostilities as soon as they began.

SITTING BULL'S HOME

The Arrest of Sitting Bull Ordered

It was so clear that a formidable war was coming unless Sitting Bull's plotting was checked, that it was decided to arrest him. His camp was forty-three miles southwest from Pine Ridge. On December 12, 1890, General Ruger telegraphed from St. Paul to Colonel Drum, commanding at Fort Yates, the military post near Standing Rock agency, to arrest Sitting Bull. It was the wish of General Ruger that the military and civil agents should co-operate, but Major McLaughlin, the agent, thought it wise to have the arrest made by the Indian police, believing that less irritation would be caused. A

time was selected when most of the Indians would be away, drawing their rations from the agency.

It was found that Sitting Bull meant to leave the reservation, and it became necessary, therefore, to act at once. Forty Indian police

"STANDING HOLY" (SITTING BULL'S DAUGHTER)

rode towards the famous medicine man's camp, followed by two troops of cavalry commanded by Captain Féchet and some infantry under Colonel Drum.

The whole force halted within five miles of the camp and held a consultation. It was agreed that the soldiers should take station within two miles or so of the camp, so that, if needed, they could be signalled.

Ten Indian policemen entered the tent of Sitting Bull, roused him from his bed, and forced him to come outside. He was angered, and began shouting to his followers, one of whom caught up his gun, and dashing out of his tepee, called to the other warriors to bring their weapons. They ran thither, and firing began. Bull Head, the principal Indian policeman, was struck in the leg. He instantly

"CROW FOOT" (SITTING BULL'S SON)

turned and sent a bullet through Sitting Bull's head, as he was shouting his commands to his followers. Another of the police shot Sitting Bull at the same moment in the stomach.

A Conflict

The police, who were all brave men, forced the hostiles to take refuge in the stables, from which they drove them. Then the assailants secured possession of a house, into which they carried their dead and wounded. There were twice as many hostiles as policemen, and the latter were attacked so furiously that they were in

danger of being killed to a man; but one of them had galloped to the top of an adjoining hill and signalled to the cavalry, who hurried up, and, opening with their Hotchkiss and Gatling guns, quickly scattered the Sioux.

This is the generally accepted version of the death of Sitting Bull, but the statement has been made that it was understood among those who set out to arrest him that an excuse was to be found for ending the career of the most dangerous agitator among all the Indian tribes.

The Losses

Five of the Indian police were killed, including Bull Head, the lieutenant in command, who had shot Sitting Bull. Six of the hostiles besides the chief were known to be killed, including Crow Foot, son of Sitting Bull, and a number wounded.*

The hostiles fled to the Bad Lands, and joined Start Bull and Crow Dog, who were already there with 200 bucks. More of the disaffected arrived until the force was a formidable one. There was much relief when General Miles reached Pine Ridge Agency on the 18th of December and took charge. Five days later word was received that there were 3,000 Indians in the Bad Lands, one-sixth of whom were fighters, and that the number was rapidly increasing.

Vast was the relief, therefore, when it was learned that Big Foot, with 200 of Sitting Bull's fugitives on Cherry Creek, had surrendered to Colonel Sumner; but the relief gave way to anxiety when news came that while Sumner was conducting his prisoners to the Missouri, the whole band broke away and hurried off to join the hostiles that were farther south.

Big Foot's Band

Four companies of the Ninth Cavalry (colored), with two Hotchkiss guns and one mortar, left Pine Ridge immediately on receipt of the news, and were followed by a wagon-train and escort, the intention of the troops being to intercept the fugitives.

Four days after the escape of the latter, their camp was discovered by an Indian scout. It was on Wounded Knee Creek, eight miles

* Sitting Bull really owed his death to his son Crow Foot, a bright, intelligent youth, seventeen years old. When the police came to arrest the medicine man his intention was to submit quietly. "You are very brave," said Crow Foot to his father, "but when the police come you behave like a child." Thus aroused, Sitting Bull made a resistance which proved fatal. When Bull Head, the policeman who was mortally wounded, was lying on a bed in Sitting Bull's cabin, he heard a slight noise under him. He spoke of it to his friends, who, stooping down, discovered Crow Foot and compelled him to come forth. The boy was killed by one of the Indian police, who were exasperated at the loss they had sustained. Standing Holy, Sitting Bull's little girl, who was not harmed, was about ten years old.

BATTLE OF WOUNDED KNEE.

north of Major Whiteside's position. Four troops of the Seventh Cavalry immediately rode forward, and at sight of them the hostiles, to the number of 150, formed in battle-line, with guns and knives. Major Whiteside also made ready for a fight.

Thus matters stood, when Big Foot approached unarmed and on foot. The officer dismounted and walked towards him. He was

"BULL HEAD"

ready to treat the chief in a friendly manner, but he did not trust him.

"We want peace," said Big Foot; "I am sick, and my people——"

Surrender of Big Foot

"I'll not parley with you," interrupted the major; "you must surrender or fight; which shall it be?"

"We surrender, and would have done so before, had we known where to find you."

PERIOD VII — THE NEW UNITED STATES

Big Foot made a gesture to his warriors who raised the white flag. The band was surrounded, and a messenger sent with all haste for several troops of the Seventh Cavalry and Lieutenant Taylor's scouts to aid in disarming and guarding the prisoners, of whom 150 were warriors and 250 squaws, besides numerous children.

The troops of the Seventh arrived in the afternoon, and on the following morning Colonel Forsyth told the males to come out of their tepees for a talk. They obeyed with evident reluctance, and ranged themselves in front of the tent in which Big Foot lay sick. Colonel Forsyth then informed the Indians that in groups of twenty at a time they must give up their weapons.

Battle of Wounded Knee

The Indians were sullen and in ugly humor. They slouched into their tepees, and did not appear again for several minutes. When they did so, they handed up two rifles only. Major Whiteside was annoyed, and spoke to Colonel Forsyth. The cavalry were ordered to dismount, and they formed in a square and closed in within twenty feet of the hostiles. A detail was sent into the tepees, and it took but a brief while to find sixty guns, which were brought out.

As it was evident that the Indians were not keeping faith, the soldiers were ordered to search them. This had hardly commenced when the savages flirted rifles from under their blankets, and began firing with great rapidity at the soldiers, who, it may be said, were at their elbows.

More than fifty shots were discharged before the troops understood what was going on. Then they opened with deadly effect on the hostiles, and the conflict lasted for half an hour, with the combatants almost within arm's length of each other. In the confusion and excitement, a number of Indians dashed through the lines and reached the hills to the southwest. They lost about a hundred, while twenty-four of the soldiers were killed, and thirty-three wounded, several of whom died.

Why Squaws and Children were Shot

It was charged that in this most serious conflict of the uprising the soldiers pursued and shot down squaws and children. It was undoubtedly true that women and children were killed, but it was unavoidable. The garments of the squaws and bucks were so similar that it was hard to distinguish the former from the latter. One of the soldiers explained that he had no time to inquire the sex of the enemy that was aiming at his heart, nor could he investigate the age of the young buck engaged at the same work.

It must be remembered, too, that the squaws were the most furious of fighters. A swarm of them clubbed Captain Wallace to death when he lay helpless on the ground. Had these women kept out of the battle, none would have been hurt.

The belief was general that the impending war was made inevitable by the affair at Wounded Knee. The situation was graver and more serious than before.

Tired from their severe ride, the Seventh Cavalry had hardly reached camp early the next day, when a messenger arrived in great

INDIAN POLICE

haste at Pine Ridge with news that the Indians had fired the Catholic mission buildings and were killing the teachers and pupils. The soldiers lost no time in galloping off; but the alarm proved baseless, for it was the day-school structure, a mile nearer the agency, that was burning, but 1,800 hostiles were some distance beyond the mission, under the command of Little Wound and Two Strike.

Alarm at Pine Ridge

The Seventh quickly formed in line and attacked them. It was noticed that only a few of the Indians took part in the fight. Colonel Forsyth, who was an old campaigner, believed this meant an ambuscade, and forbade his men to advance too far. But for this precaution the whole command would have been cut off. In truth,

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they were so nearly surrounded that they would have suffered severely but for the gallant assault by the colored cavalry upon the rear of the hostiles, and the headlong flight of the latter.

Many Indians who had remained neutral, and were looked upon as friendly, now stole away from the agency, as chance offered, and joined the enemy. Their signal-fires twinkled in the horizon; the ghost dances became more frenzied, some of the converging hostiles being drawn even from British territory, whence they galloped through the intense cold to take part in the destruction of their hereditary enemies. About the only ones that resisted the impulses of hatred and passion were a few Cheyennes, the Indian scouts and police, and Chief American Horse. General Miles at that time had about 8,000 men under his command.

A Grave Peril

Skirmishing was going on continually, but the great battle was postponed from day to day, though hardly a man believed, with each rising sun, that it could be delayed for more than a few hours.

On Sunday, January 4, 1891, a terrifying plot was discovered. The Indians had agreed that each warrior should select a white man, and, late that night, kill him. As soon as the hostiles outside heard the firing, they should rush into the agency and join in the massacre. Only a few soldiers were at Pine Ridge, and they were some distance off in the intrenchments.

The people, on learning of the plot, ran from their homes to the stores and storehouses, which were hurriedly barricaded, and every preparation made for resistance. Seeing that their scheme had become known, the Indians did not make the attack.

A Rash Act

Lieut. Edward W. Casey, of the Twenty-Second Infantry, was the commander of a company of Cheyenne scouts. Accompanied by one of them, he rode from the camp of General Brooke, January 7th, intending to reconnoitre a village of the hostiles on White Clay Creek, near the White River. It was a very dangerous thing to do, for the Indians were holding one of their ghost dances, and would resent the approach of any white man. General Brooke warned Casey to keep out of sight of the village, and the experience of the lieutenant ought to have restrained him. Disregarding the advice of his superior, however, the officer rode about eight miles, when he came in sight of the hostile village.

He was immediately discovered by an Ogalalla and a Brule Indian, the former of whom rushed into the village with word that an army

officer was approaching. The rage of the hostiles at this intrusion became intense.

It so happened that a French half-breed named Jack Richards was

"RED CLOUD"

in camp, whither he had gone to look after his family, who were held prisoners. Red Cloud told him not to lose an instant in hurrying to Casey and warning him to turn back at once. Richards set out to

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do so, but directly behind him rode the Ogalalla and the Brule, known as Plenty Horses, and a savage fanatic.

As the three approached Casey, the Ogalalla called out in the Sioux tongue to the lieutenant that Plenty Horses had a bad heart and meant to kill him. Casey thanked the Brule and Richards, but, instead of following their advice, said he would ride to the top of an adjoining hill, and take one good look at the village before returning.

Shooting of Casey

Casey had hardly reached the top of the butte, when Plenty Horses levelled his rifle at him. The Ogalalla struck the weapon aside and begged him not to shoot the officer. Plenty Horses rode off a short way and began circling around Casey, chanting a dismal, dirge-like song. Suddenly he raised his gun and fired. The bullet struck Lieutenant Casey in the head, and he rolled out of the saddle without word or exclamation.

The news quickly reached the Indian camp, and the aged chief Red Cloud rode out to recover the body and save it from indignity. Richards carried the news to General Brooke, and the report of it was brought to Pine Ridge by Yankton Charley, an Ogalalla scout, who kept his horse on a dead run for twenty miles through a blizzard, the animal falling dead directly after his arrival. General Brooke sent Lieutenant Getty with a detachment of cavalry to bring in the body. It was surrendered and found free from mutilation.

Red Cloud and his friends were so angered by the killing of Casey that, in spite of the threats of the others, they rode into the agency and surrendered to General Miles.

The situation assumed a peculiar phase. Five thousand or more hostile Indians were encamped within a short distance of Pine Ridge, while the soldiers were slowly and guardedly closing in upon three sides and striving to force them into the agency. The situation suggested a drove of wild horses being gently urged towards an enclosure, but ready to break into an irrestrainable stampede upon the slightest cause. The drivers, in the persons of the soldiers, were several miles in the rear, "inching" forward, on the alert that none of the drove broke away, and cautious about frightening them by a too rapid approach.

A Delicate Situation

There were many sensible Indians who saw the inevitable end of a conflict, and urged the others to submit, but probably a fourth of the hostiles were bucks too eager for a combat to be restrained. They clamored for a fight, and would listen to no arguments. It

BRINGING THE NEWS OF LIEUT. CASEY'S DEATH.

would have been well could those enthusiastic young men have been taken aside and had their wish gratified.

General Miles and his men displayed admirable tact. It has been said with reason that there were hours during this remarkable "round-up" when the firing of a single gun, even if accidental, would have precipitated the most fateful conflict that has ever taken place between the white and the red men. The flint and steel were in contact, but the spark had not yet been produced that was to fire the magazine.

General Miles' Tact

SIOUX ENCAMPMENT BELOW STANDING ROCK AGENCY

Orders were issued that so long as the Indians continued their approach to the agency, even at a slow rate, thus showing a disposition to surrender, not a shot was to be fired. At the same time the officers were resolute. If any of the hostiles tried to break through the lines, they were to be shot down, or, failing in that, the cavalry were to pursue and capture them. The belief was that hundreds of the braves, dreading punishment for what they had already done, would, at the last moment, make a desperate effort to escape, in which event the fighting would be of the fiercest character.

On the 10th of January, the Indians went into camp on White Clay Creek, five miles from Pine Ridge, and near the spot of the Catholic Mission fight. The village was in a winding ravine, and was two miles in length. The weather was bitterly cold, and there was a

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great deal of snow on the ground, which was whirled in blinding eddies by the wind. Only a part of the Indians had tepees, the rest finding shelter in the pockets at the sides of the ravine, where pine boughs were arranged so as to give them partial shelter. They had with them a number of wounded.

The Gradual Closing In

The arguments of the elder Indians caused a sullen move, on the night of the 10th, to a point two miles nearer Pine Ridge. The hostiles had food, and dawdled away the time, hitching forward with many halts, and often refusing to stir until in the mood to do so, while the soldiers, with the utmost care, gradually followed and closed in. No such unique situation has ever been seen. General Carr and his veteran Indian fighters of the Sixth Cavalry edged up from the left, and General Brooke with the Ninth Cavalry and Sixth Infantry encamped on the site occupied by the Indians twenty-four hours before. Scattering hostiles came in and submitted, but the main body held off and sulked.

The seven hundred men at the agency had four 3-inch rifled cannon, four Hotchkiss, and two Gatling guns. It was often impossible to see a dozen feet in advance because of the whirling snow mixed with alkali dust, and the weather continued intensely cold.

At mid-day on the 11th, the formidable Indian force sat down within a mile and a half of the agency. The bucks were restless and almost irrestrainable. The situation could not have been more critical.

The sentinels in Captain Dougherty's fort saw a number of dusky faces, half hidden by the dangling strands of black hair, peep over the ridges to the north and then whisk out of sight. They were the scouts of the hostiles. Then a number of Indian horsemen galloped to the summit of a butte, which was soon covered with them. They sat motionless, glaring at the soldiers, as if challenging them to come out and fight; but the soldiers returned their stare and calmly waited. Then the Indian horsemen rode down the slope and passed through a winding valley to the old home of Red Cloud.

An Extraordinary Scene

The scene which followed was extraordinary. The bucks ran back and forth, firing their rifles over the heads of those who were urging surrender. When this had continued some minutes, they turned their weapons on their horses and dogs and shot them down. It was a relief to their pent-up rage, and, with what followed, convinced General Miles that the long-deferred battle was about to open.

The troops made ready for action. The surgeons began preparing bandages and placing their gleaming instruments in order, cannon were shifted into new positions, and all civilians were ordered to leave the breastworks.

The thousands of hostiles advanced slowly down the sides of the

STEAMER "ROSEBUD"

ravines, their eagle feathers fluttering from their crowns, while the spectators scanned the strange scene through their glasses with breathless interest. Passing from sight for a few minutes behind a group of pines, the line came into view again on the west side of Clay Creek, where the tepees appeared so rapidly that they looked

Advance of the Hostiles

like huge dirty toadstools popping through the crust of the earth. There must have been six or eight hundred, counting those that were not in sight from the earthworks, for they extended for more than three miles along the ravine.

A cold, dense fog hid the sun on the 15th until the latter part of the afternoon. Then when it lifted the immense band of hostiles were seen to be in motion, and the signs indicated that the Indians were about to keep the promise made the day previous, and come in and surrender.

Most fortunately this belief was confirmed. The hostiles moved forward from the wooded ravine north of the agency, around the

INDIAN TRADING STORE, STANDING ROCK

base of Horseshoe Butte, and into the valley a fourth of a mile farther south. At the head were the bucks who drove scores of ponies bunched together; then came the jolting wagons, driven by squaws, and filled with tepees, poles, and camp equipage. There seemed to be no end to the dogs, and the ponies trotting along without saddle or bridle were plentiful enough to provide a mount for a brigade of cavalry. Most of these had been captured by the Indians while raiding along White River.

The Immense Number of Hostiles

The procession was four miles in length. Every one was astonished by the numbers and strength of the hostiles, which was much greater than had been suspected. There were 732 lodges and nearly 6,000 Indians in line. One-third of the Sioux nation was encamped at the agency. A conservative estimate made the number 11,000, of whom nearly a third were warriors. Although only a few worthless guns were turned in, the surrender was complete, and the baleful war

THE FINAL SURRENDER OF THE INDIANS.

cloud had vanished, never again to appear in so formidable proportions.

General Miles did not share the uneasiness felt by many others. He issued a congratulatory address to the soldiers, and began placing the troops on a "peace basis." He preferred charges against Col. J. W. Forsyth, Seventh Cavalry, because of his conduct at the battle of Wounded Knee, but the charges were dismissed by Secretary of War Proctor, and Colonel Forsyth was ordered to resume command of his regiment.

Charges Against Col. Forsyth

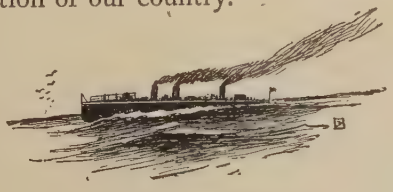
It was not long after the cessation of hostilities that Plenty Horses, the slayer of Lieutenant Casey, was arrested and brought to trial at Sioux Falls, S. D. There was a deep interest in the trial, and the general wish and belief was that the Brule would be executed for his act.

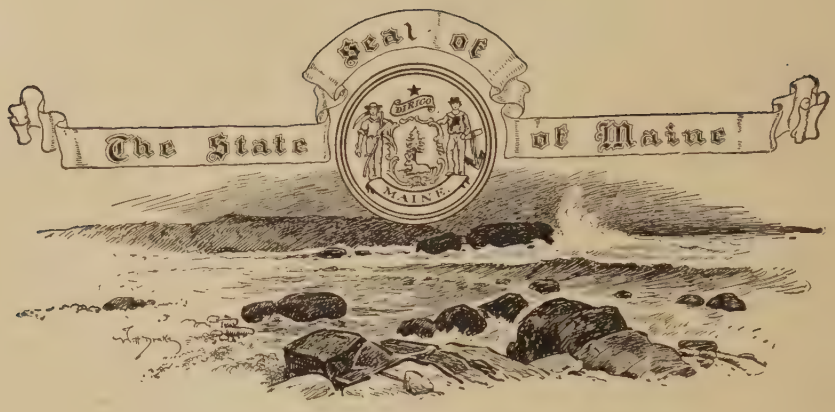
On the 28th of May, 1891, however, Judge Shiras peremptorily stopped the proceedings and ordered the jury to bring in the verdict "not guilty." Some of the jurors were inclined to protest, and much surprise was felt, but the learned judge in a few sentences showed that no other verdict could be sustained.

This explanation may be summarized: a state of war existed between the United States and the Indian troops encamped in the neighborhood of Pine Ridge agency. Although the manner in which Lieutenant Casey was killed cannot be condemned too severely, yet he was engaged in an act of legitimate warfare against the Indians, and was in such situation that he could be legitimately killed by them. Consequently his death was justified by the laws of war, and Plenty Horses could not be punished therefor, any more than could a Union soldier for shooting a Confederate soldier during battle.

Close of the Uprising

This incident was the closing act of the great Indian uprising of 1890–91. There have been local outbreaks since at widely separated points, but none of a serious nature, and it seems impossible that anything approaching the peril at Pine Ridge agency can ever again threaten any portion of our country.





CHAPTER LXXXVII

HARRISON'S ADMINISTRATION—1889–1893
(CONCLUDED)

[*Authorities:* One is reminded by the contents of this chapter of Shakespeare's

"Imperial Cæsar, dead and turned to clay,
Might stop a hole to keep the wind away."

At the end of all human effort and achievement, be it base or ignoble, whether they tend to advance or to retard the onward march of weal and progress for the human race, one end awaits us all,—death, "*invida mors.*" In a brief space of years we must note the departure from life and its work of many of our noblest and best who distinguished themselves on one side or the other during our Civil War. Sherman, Porter, Johnston, Blaine, Hayes, Beauregard, Davis,—the list is a long one. How it diminishes the apparent value of high achievement! And to him that thinks deeply, the reflections that such records beget should do much to bring a kind of philosophical indifference for "the failings and wailings 'neath the sun." The origin of fatalism is not far to seek. The authorities that have been relied upon are contemporaneous publications, and the biographies of the men whose deaths are noted.]

The Soldiers Home, Washington D.C.

THE Grand Army of the Republic is an association of veterans who fought on the Union side during the Civil War. The first post was organized at Decatur, Ill., April 6, 1866, which was not quite a year after Lee's surrender at Appomattox. The first department encampment was held at Madison, Wis., on the 7th of the following June, and the first national encampment met at Indianapolis, November 20th of the same year.

One of the most touching sights in these later days is this annual coming together of the men who risked their lives in the defence of their country. Most of them were young and vigorous

youths in the stirring days of 1861, when the nation summoned them, but they are now old and grizzled, and many are feeble and tottering under the weight of years and of wounds received in that mighty struggle for the life of the nation. But the fire of patriotism glows as brightly as ever in their hearts, and will continue to burn until they cross the river and join the vast army of comrades that have gone before.

The Grand Army of the Republic

From the 19th to the 22d of September, 1892, our national capital was given over to the twenty-sixth annual encampment of the Grand Army of the Republic. The gathering was the largest that has taken place since the memorable review of the Union forces at the close of the war in 1865. Washington was elaborately decorated, and the thousands of visitors from every section of the country vied with each other in honoring the heroes who proudly kept step to the "music of the Union" more than a quarter of a century before.

It is estimated that fully 67,000 men, in the parade of September 20th, marched past the stand in front of the Treasury building, from which Vice-President Morton reviewed them. The mortal illness of Mrs. Harrison prevented the President from meeting his old army comrades, as he earnestly wished to do.

The route taken was that followed by the 150,000 survivors of the Armies of the Potomac and the West, when they marched by under the proud gaze of President Johnson and his Cabinet, Generals Grant, Sherman, and Sheridan, and in the presence of the foreign representatives at Washington. On that historical occasion, the vast procession was thirty miles long, which, moving briskly, occupied seven hours on both the 23d and 24th of May in passing the reviewing stand. The parade twenty-seven years later took about eight hours to march over the same ground.

The Mijares Incident

While the American merchant steamer *Philadelphia* was lying at the Venezeulan port of La Guayra, November 10, 1892, a man came on board and asked the protection of our flag on the ground that he was a political refugee. It is the law of nations that any person fleeing from his country because of political offences is not subject to extradition. That is to say, the government in whose territory he takes refuge will not give him up to the offended government that claims him. During our Civil War, any Confederate who managed to reach Canada, provided he had committed no crimes other than

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political, was as safe from disturbance by the United States as was the Queen of England.

When the stranger, therefore, applied to the captain of the American ship for protection because he was a political refugee or fugitive, his request was granted. The man turned out to be General Pedro Vincente Mijares, who had been governor of Caraccas under a ruler that was deposed from power.

Bravery of the American Commander

When it became known to the police of La Guayra that Mijares had taken refuge on the American steamer, a company of Venezuelan troops marched down to the pier and a demand made for the surrender of Mijares on the ground that he was "an enemy of the government." The captain refused to give him up. The soldiers attempted to board the vessel and take the fugitive, but the commander met force with force, and repelled them.

Fearing further trouble, the captain of the *Philadelphia* moved his vessel away from the pier, and anchored. Then the captain went ashore and laid the facts before United States Minister Scruggs, who assured him he had done exactly the right thing.

All this was well enough, but Venezuela just then was in a bad way. She was hardly over the struggles of a bitter civil war, in which the worst passions of men are roused. At such times the people have little respect for what is known as international law, or indeed for any other kind of law. The repulse of the attempted arrest of Mijares angered the authorities of La Guayra, and there was imminent danger of an attack upon the American vessel. Such an act would cause bloodshed and would be fatal to the refugee. The captain of the *Philadelphia*, therefore, decided to sail at once.

When he demanded his clearance papers, however, they were refused unless he would surrender General Mijares. In this dilemma the captain applied to the United States Consul. That official held a consultation with Minister Scruggs and the Secretary of Legation, who decided to grant to the captain the right to sail, in view of the fact that clearance papers had been demanded and refused, and that the *Philadelphia* carried the United States mail.

Safety of the Fugitive

That same night, therefore, the vessel, under cover of darkness, weighed anchor and left without her papers. Eight days afterwards General Mijares safely reached New York, and the *Philadelphia* was admitted to entry at the New York Custom House.

Now, while this incident was not much in itself, it had great sig-

GHOST DANCE

nificance. Two similar occurrences had taken place in the history of American shipping, and the action of the captain of the *Philadelphia* was supported by the rulings of the Navy Department, by the decisions of foreign courts, and by all versed in the laws of nations.

The Case of Gamez

In the year 1885, a Nicaraguan political refugee named Gamez took passage on the American steamer *Honduras*, at San José, in Guatemala, his destination being the port of Punta Arenas in Costa Rica. When the vessel put into San Juan del Sur the Nicaraguan authorities endeavored to arrest Gamez. The captain would not permit it, and he, too, had to sail without his clearance papers.

During his absence criminal proceedings were begun against the captain in the Nicaraguan courts, but he was acquitted, the judge formally expressing the opinion that he was under no obligation to surrender Gamez to the Nicaraguan authorities. The Supreme Court of Granada afterwards confirmed this opinion, when the decision was appealed to it.

Our Government expressed itself most decisively on this question in the other case referred to. In the month of August, 1890, Barrundia, who was a political fugitive from Guatemala, took refuge upon an American steamer at San José. A demand for his arrest was made and complied with, upon the advice of the American Minister, who said he had assurances that the life of the prisoner would be respected. Barrundia, however, resisted the arrest, and was killed while defending himself.

The United States Minister was recalled for his course in the matter, and Commander Reiter, of the *Ranger*, who knew what was going on and whose ship lay near by, was dismissed from the service because he did not interfere. Commander Reiter would have been quick to act had he not been advised against it by the American Minister.

A Just Rule

It will be seen from this that our Government has established an "ironclad" rule for the guidance of its officials under such circumstances. General Mijares was not charged with violating any of the ordinary laws of Venezuela. He, therefore, was a political refugee and nothing more. Being that, he was not liable to arrest, after placing his foot on the deck of an American vessel, which, when our country's flag is flying overhead, is, to all intents and purposes, as much a part of the soil of the United States as the site of the Capitol in Washington.

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Furthermore, no passenger on a neutral ship, bound for a neutral port, can be arrested for political offences, while the ship is stopping at any port of the country to which he owes allegiance. As has been shown, his arrest can be made only when he is charged with ordinary criminal offences, committed at the port from which he embarked. The United States has declared in language that cannot be mistaken its purpose of giving to all political refugees applying to it the fullest protection of the Stars and Stripes.

Death of Jefferson Davis

Jefferson Davis, ex-President of the Southern Confederacy, died in New Orleans, December 6, 1889. He was born in Kentucky in 1808, and was graduated from the West Point Military Academy in 1828. In 1831–32, he saw service in the Black Hawk War, and the following year, as first lieutenant of dragoons, fought against the Comanches and Apaches. Resigning from the army in 1835, he became a cotton planter in Mississippi, but re-entered the service on the breaking out of the Mexican War as colonel of the First Mississippi volunteers. He displayed great bravery, as we have learned, at Monterey and Buena Vista, being severely wounded in the latter battle. He was elected to the United States Senate on the conclusion of the war, but resigned in order to become a candidate for the governorship of his State. He failed of election, and served as Secretary of War under Pierce. He was United States Senator again during Buchanan's administration, but resigned and went South upon the secession of Mississippi. His funeral was generally observed throughout the South. His body was removed to Richmond in 1891, and a movement set on foot to erect a monument to his memory.

General Sherman died peacefully at his residence in New York city, February 14, 1891, and with him departed the last three of the great leaders of the Union armies during the Civil War—Grant, Sheridan, and Sherman.

Death of Gen. Sherman

William Tecumseh Sherman was born at Lancaster, Ohio, February 8, 1820. He was the third son in a family of six sons and five daughters. The death of the father left the family in straitened circumstances, and William fell under the care of Hon. Thomas Ewing, who treated him with considerate kindness. Entering the West Point Military Academy, Cadet Sherman was graduated in June, 1840, sixth in a class of forty-three. He first saw service against the Indians in Florida, and was promoted to a first lieuten-

ancy in November, 1841. Transferred to the Pacific Coast in 1846, he remained there until 1850. The army offering little chance of promotion during peace, he resigned and became a banker in San Francisco, and in 1858–59 undertook the practice of law in Leaven-

WILLIAM TECUMSEH SHERMAN

worth, Kans., he having studied the profession during the leisure of his army life.

Biographical Sketch of Sherman

In 1860 he became superintendent of the State Military Academy at Alexandria, La. An ardent Union man, he resigned upon the secession of the State and returned to St. Louis. Captain Sherman was one of the few military men who comprehended from the first the magnitude of the impending conflict. He ridiculed President Lincoln's call for 75,000 men for three months, and paid no heed to it. When the term of enlistment, however, was made for three

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years, he came forward and was commissioned colonel of the Thirteenth Infantry in the regular service. Arriving in Washington, he was assigned to the command of a brigade of Tyler's division of the army, which suffered severely in the battle of Manassas and Bull Run. In his comments on this opening battle of the Civil War, General Sherman said:

Sherman's Opinion of Bull Run

"It is now generally admitted that it was one of the best-planned battles of the war, but one of the worst fought. Our men had been told so often at home that all they had to do was to make a bold appearance and the rebels would run; and nearly all of us for the first time then heard the sound of cannon and muskets in anger, and saw the bloody scenes common to all battles with which we were soon to be familiar. We had good organization, good men, but no cohesion, no real discipline, no respect for authority, no real knowledge of war. Both armies were fairly defeated, and whichever had stood fast the other would have run. Though the North was filled with mortification and shame, the South really had not much to boast of, for in the three or four hours of fighting their organization was so broken up that they did not and could not follow our army when it was known to be in a state of disgraceful and causeless flight. It is easy to criticise a battle after it is over, but all now admit that none others equally raw in war could have done better than we did at Bull Run, and the lesson of that battle should not be lost on a people like ours."

His Military Services

Soon after this battle, Colonel Sherman was made a brigadier-general of volunteers, and assigned to the department of the Cumberland under General Robert Anderson of Fort Sumter fame. He succeeded General Anderson, who retired because of ill health, and was next transferred to St. Louis and placed in charge of Benton Barracks. He took command of the Fifth Division of the Army of Tennessee, after the capture of Forts Henry and Donelson by Grant, in February, 1862. The services of Sherman at Shiloh, before Vicksburg, at Chattanooga, and his great march from Atlanta to the sea, his northward advance, and the surrender of General Jo. Johnston, have already been told. On May 30, 1865, General Sherman took leave of his army in general orders. Upon the reorganization of the army, Grant became general, and Sherman lieutenant-general. When Grant was elected President, Sherman succeeded him as general, holding that rank until his retirement in February, 1884.

GENERAL WM. T. SHERMAN

General Sherman made his home in New York City, where he became a great social favorite. He was welcomed everywhere, and throughout his long and eventful life, no whisper was ever uttered against his spotless honor. Yale, Harvard, Princeton, Dartmouth, and other universities and colleges conferred upon him the degree of LL.D., and he was made a member of the Board of Regents of the Smithsonian Institution. His funeral was impressive, the remains being deposited beside those of his wife and little son Willie, in Calvary Cemetery, St. Louis.

Death of Admiral Porter

The day preceding the death of General Sherman, that is, on February 13, 1891, Admiral David Porter died suddenly in Washington. He was born in Chester, Pa., June 8, 1813. His father at that time was doing excellent service as commander of the frigate *Essex*, in the war against Great Britain. When only fourteen years old, the son was appointed midshipman in the Mexican Navy, and served under his cousin, Captain David H. Porter. Two years later, young Porter entered the United States Navy as midshipman, afterwards filling different positions in the service. He took part, during the Mexican War, in the engagements at Vera Cruz, Tuxpan, and Tabasco, and in the land fights at Tamultec and Chifflon.

Porter's first assignment, at the opening of the Civil War, was to the command of the steam frigate *Powhatan*, sent to join the Gulf blockading squadron at Pensacola. In the attack on New Orleans, from April 18 to April 24, 1862, Porter commanded the mortar fleet, consisting of twenty-one schooners, each carrying a thirteen-inch mortar, accompanied by five convoy steamers. Then followed a series of operations above New Orleans, the object of which was the capture of Vicksburg. Porter had command of the naval forces of the upper Mississippi, and helped Grant and Sherman in their efforts to open that river for commerce.

Porter's Services

In September, 1862, Porter, as acting rear-admiral, assumed command of the Mississippi squadron. His passage of the Vicksburg batteries opened communication with General Grant, who then placed himself in the rear of the city. Porter's commission as rear-admiral bore the date of the fall of Vicksburg, July 4, 1863. His assistance in the capture of Fort Fisher, N. C., led to his being thanked a third time by Congress. Soon after the close of the war, Porter was appointed vice-admiral, and served until 1869 as superintendent of the Naval Academy at Annapolis. He succeeded Farra-

gut as admiral, on the death of that officer in 1870, and with the death of Porter the office ceased to exist.

Gen. Joseph Eggleston Johnston died in Washington, March 21, 1891. Next to General Lee he was the greatest leader of the Confederate forces during the Civil War. He was born at Farmville, Va., February 3, 1809, and was graduated from West Point, number thirteen, in a class in which General Lee stood second.

General Johnston served in harbor garrisons and in the Seminole War in 1836, and entered the Mexican War as captain, displaying notable bravery at the siege of Vera Cruz, and in the battles of Cerro Gordo, Contreras, Churubusco, Molino del Rey, and Chapultepec, and the capture of the City of Mexico. During this war he earned two brevets for gallantry. In June, 1860, he became quartermaster-general of the United States Army. He resigned in April, 1861, and was one of the first four brigadiers commissioned at Montgomery. His arrival at Bull Run was just in time to turn the impending Confederate defeat into a victory. In the fighting on the Peninsula, Johnston was desperately wounded, and was succeeded in command by General Lee, by whose fame his own was thenceforward eclipsed.

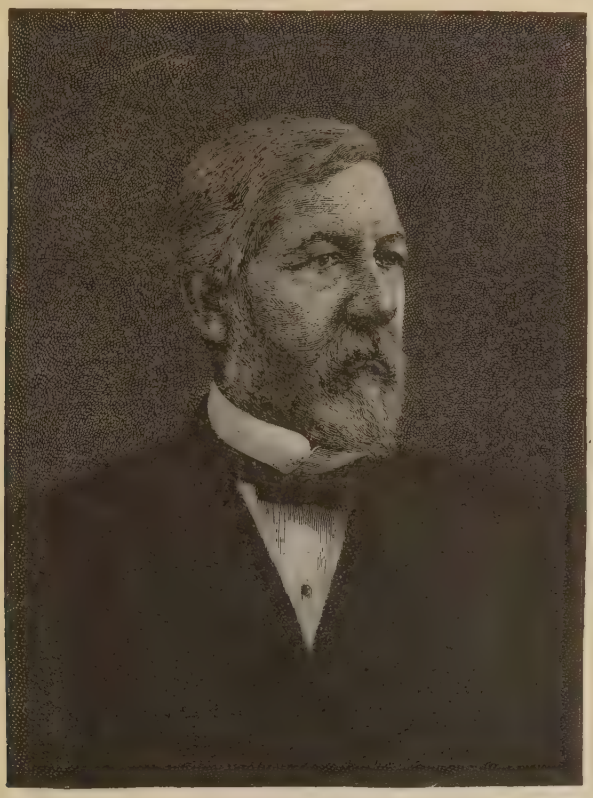
Upon his recovery the following spring, General Johnston was transferred to the command of the Southwest, including Pemberton's forces in Mississippi and Bragg's in Tennessee. He confronted Sherman with great skill, until superseded at Atlanta by Hood. General Lee, upon assuming charge of all the forces of the Confederacy, immediately restored Johnston to command, and, as has been told, his was the last great army to surrender to the Union forces.

General Johnston held many responsible trusts after the close of the war. He served as Congressman from the Richmond district, and President Cleveland appointed him a commissioner of railroads. General Johnston was a pall-bearer at the funeral of General Grant, and again at that of General Sherman. Between him and General Sherman an intimate friendship existed, and they mutually agreed that the survivor should be present in the capacity named at the funeral of the other.

The closing months of President Harrison's administration were marked by a number of notable deaths. That which attracted the most attention was of James G. Blaine, who had been one of the

unsuccessful candidates for the Presidential nomination at Minneapolis in June, 1892.

At the time of Mr. Blaine's death he was our foremost statesman. His great ability, his prominence not only in our own country but in the eyes of Europe, his strong Americanism, and the impress that



JAMES G. BLAINE

he left upon our national affairs, justify a fuller notice than is generally given to the leading actors in our history.

Blaine's Early Years

Mr. Blaine was born in the hamlet of Brownsville, Washington County, Pa., January 31, 1830. He was an excellent student, and was graduated from Washington College at the age of seventeen, becoming a tutor shortly after in a military college at Blue Lick Springs, Ky. He married Miss Harriet Stanwood in 1851. He was an instructor in an institution for the blind in Philadelphia from September, 1852, until November, 1854, when he removed to the

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city of Augusta, Me., which was ever afterwards looked upon as his home.

Mr. Blaine next assumed the editorship of *The Kennebec Journal*, a paper of comparatively little importance. It was, however, a good training-school for his facile pen. His fine command of words, his brilliant ideas, his winning personality, and a remarkable memory of faces helped to make him a power in his adopted State—a power that steadily grew until it became national. He threw all his energies into the organization of the new Republican Party from the ruins of the old Whig Party that had been one of the great political factors of the Union for many years.

Blaine in Politics

Mr. Blaine was a delegate to the Republican National Convention in 1856, and a member of the Maine legislature from 1858 until 1862, serving the last two years as Speaker. In 1862 he was elected to Congress and served continuously for seven terms. He was chosen Speaker in 1869, and was twice re-elected. At the Presidential convention in Cincinnati, in June, 1876, Blaine was the leading candidate for the nomination. At the opening of the contest he received 285 votes, Bristow 113, Conkling 99, Morton 124, and Hayes 61. A combination of all the opposing candidates threw the nomination to Mr. Hayes at the moment when it seemed certain for Mr. Blaine.

He gave his effective help to the election of the Republican ticket, and during the same year was appointed United States Senator to fill the unexpired term of Senator Morrill, being elected the following winter for the ensuing term.

The next Republican national convention met in Chicago in June, 1880. At the opening, Blaine and General Grant, the latter having served two terms, were the leading candidates. After a week's determined contest, it became apparent that neither could be nominated. General Garfield was sprung upon the convention, Blaine's friends went to him, and he carried off the prize on the thirty-sixth ballot. Garfield selected Blaine as his Secretary of State. Upon the assassination of President Garfield, Secretary Blaine resigned and for the first time in more than twenty years became a private citizen. He employed his leisure in writing his valuable work "Twenty Years in Congress." This production added to his popularity and made him a more prominent "Presidential possibility," as the expression goes, than ever before. At the Republican na-

Blaine as an Author

tional convention in Chicago, June, 1884, Mr. Blaine was nominated on the fourth ballot. His defeat was due to the trifling incident already related.

A renomination awaited Mr. Blaine in 1888, but after consideration, he refused to permit his name to go before the convention. Ex-Senator Benjamin Harrison received the honor, and when elected President he made Mr. Blaine his Secretary of State.

Blaine's Public Services

It was while Mr. Blaine held the high office of Secretary of State that his name became associated with the International American Conference, popularly known as the Pan-American (All American) Congress. His services were of the highest character, and must prove a blessing to both continents.

The closing years of Mr. Blaine's life were shadowed. Walker, his eldest son, died January 15, 1890; Alice, the oldest daughter, who married Col. J. J. Coppinger, passed away at her father's house, February 2, 1890, and Emmons, a gifted son, and a graduate of Harvard, died in June, 1892, shortly after his marriage.

By this time, too, the health of Mr. Blaine, which had shown signs for several years of breaking, left no doubt among his friends that his life was nearing its end. He strove to rally from his growing weakness, and at times succeeded, but those who best knew him saw the pitiful effort he was vainly making.

Shortly before the assembling of the Republican convention in Minneapolis, June, 1892, Blaine resigned from the Cabinet of President Harrison. After much dallying, he had consented to allow the use of his name as a Presidential candidate. His own wishes were against this course, but he was persuaded to it by his family and a few friends.

Political Disappointment

The nomination went to President Harrison instead. It was well it did, for the turmoil and excitement of a Presidential contest must have hastened the death of Mr. Blaine. He had been afflicted most sorely in his family, and his health, over which he had long been anxious, failed so rapidly that he could no longer hide the truth from himself.

He died on the morning of Friday, January 27, 1893, at his residence in Washington. Every token of respect and honor was shown to his memory, and his death was mourned alike by political friends and opponents.

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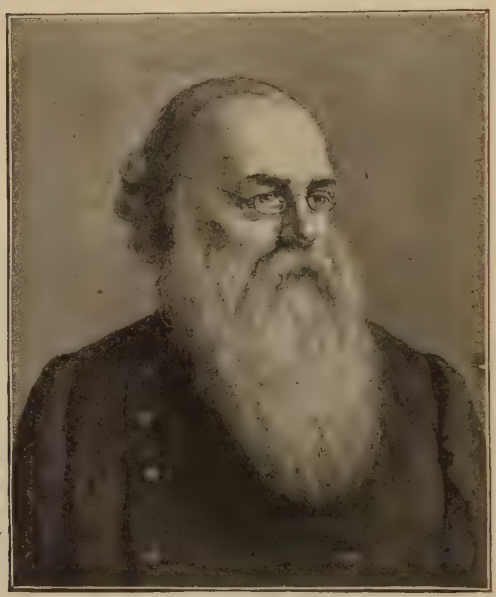
Ex-President Hayes died January 17, 1893, at his home in Fremont, Ohio. Among the attendants at his funeral was President-elect Cleveland.

General Pierre Gustave Toutant Beauregard died in New Orleans, February 20, 1893. He was born near that city, May 28, 1818, and was graduated from the West Point Military Academy in 1838. He did good service in the war with Mexico, and was twice wounded. He was appointed Superintendent of the Military Academy, January 23, 1861, but resigned a month later to serve the Southern Confederacy. It will be remembered that he commanded at Charleston, when Fort Sumter was bombarded, and at Bull Run, when, towards the close of the battle, he was superseded by Jo Johnston. He became a general, but his services in the South hardly met the expectations of the Confederacy.



KIRBY SMITH

Other Notable Death

Gen. Edmund Kirby Smith, Professor of Mathematics in the University of the South since 1875, died at Sewanee, Tenn., March 28, 1893. He was born in St. Augustine, Fla., May 16, 1824, and was graduated from West Point in 1845. He was breveted for gallantry at Cerro Gordo and Contreras, and was Assistant Professor of Mathematics at West Point from 1845 to 1852. He was wounded in service against the Comanches in 1859, and became a major in January, 1861, but resigned when Florida seceded from the Union. He was made a general in February, 1864. He was severely wounded at the battle of Bull Run. He led the advance of Gen. Braxton Bragg's army in the Kentucky campaign, and defeated the Union forces under Gen. William Nelson. In February, 1863,

he was assigned to the command of the Trans-Mississippi Department, including Texas, Louisiana, and Arkansas, and organized a government there. His district was self-supporting when the war closed. His forces were the last of the Confederacy to surrender. He was President of the Atlantic and Pacific Telegraph Company from 1866 to 1868, and Chancellor of the University of Nashville from 1870 to 1875. General Smith was the last surviving general of the Confederacy.

Leading Presidential Nominations

The Republican National Convention was in session at Minneapolis from June 7 to June 11, 1892. The number of delegates present was 904⅓. The votes necessary to a choice were 453. On the first ballot, President Harrison received 535⅙ votes; Blaine, 182⅙; McKinley, 182; Reed, 4; and Lincoln, 1. This made Harrison's plurality 166, and he was therefore nominated on the first ballot.

For candidate for Vice-President, Whitelaw Reid and Thomas B. Reed were put in nomination, but Reed withdrew before a ballot was taken, and Reid was nominated unanimously.

The Democratic National Convention was in session in Chicago from June 21st to June 23d. The whole number of votes cast was 909½; necessary to a choice, 607. On the first ballot, Grover Cleveland received 617½ votes; Hill, 114; Boies, 103; Gorman, 36½; Stevenson, 16⅔; and Carlisle, 14. Mr. Cleveland, therefore, like his Republican opponent, was nominated on the first ballot.

On the first ballot for Vice-President, Adlai E. Stevenson, of Illinois, received 402 votes; Isaac P. Gray, 343; Allen B. Morse, 86; John L. Mitchell, 45; Henry Watterson, 26; Bourke Cockran, 5; Lambert Tree and Horace Boies, 1 vote each. Stevenson was then nominated by acclamation.

Other Nominations

The Prohibition Party National Convention was in session in Cincinnati from June 29th to July 1st. John Bidwell, of California, was nominated for President on the first ballot, and James B. Cranfil, of Texas, was nominated for Vice-President.

From July 4th to 5th, the National Convention of the People's Party was in session at Omaha. James B. Weaver, of Iowa, was nominated for President, and James G. Field, of Virginia, for Vice-President.

On August 28th, the Socialist Labor Party, at a meeting in New

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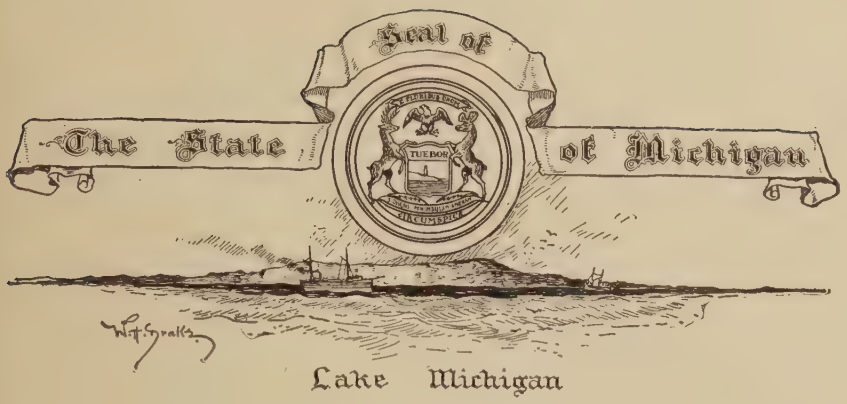
York, nominated Simon Wing, of Massachusetts, for President, and C. H. Matchett, of New York, for Vice-President.

In the struggle of November 8th the Democrats not only elected their President, but gained control of the Senate and House of Representatives. Thus on March 4, 1893, the entire law-making machinery of the United States passed under the control of that party. Mr. Cleveland's plurality of 131 over Mr. Harrison, and his majority of 108 over all, is the largest plurality received by any Presidential candidate in the Electoral College since 1872, and, with that exception, the greatest victory since the election of Pierce in 1852, when the Whig Party went to pieces.

Another notable fact was the first entrance in thirty-two years of a third party into the Electoral College.

Causes of Democratic Success

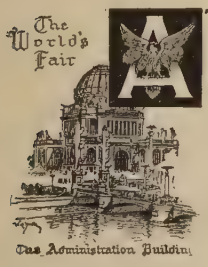
A variety of causes helped to bring about this surprising result. Among them may be named a desire for a more moderate tariff policy, that is, one more directly for the raising of revenue, and yet protective in a general sense of American interests; the fear of Federal interference in the elections; the wish for free silver, and for a repeal of the tax on state bank issues; the widespread belief that high protection tends to the concentration of wealth and prevents the laborer from receiving adequate employment; and, finally, the general unrest and desire for a change of administration.



CHAPTER LXXXVIII

CLEVELAND'S SECOND ADMINISTRATION—1893–1897

[*Authorities:* The present chapter is devoted almost exclusively to a description of the World's Fair at Chicago. Such an expression in the days of our fathers would never have been thought of. The facilities for intercommunication were so rudimentary that they were taxed to the utmost by the County Fair. The advent of railroads and Morse's telegraph was followed, after an interval of readjustment to new conditions, by the State Fair. It was not, however, until after the introduction of the ocean cables that an International or World's Fair became a possibility. By means of the land and the ocean telegraphs the feat of putting "a girdle round the earth in forty minutes" has been realized, and enterprising men in every part of the habitable globe knew almost simultaneously what was being done in preparation for the great enterprise. Time and distance became factors of little moment. No such exposition of the products of nature, of human handicraft, and of human invention would have been dreamed of before the introduction of those space-annihilating agencies, the railroad, the ocean steamer, and the telegraph. The sources from which we have derived much valuable help in writing this chapter are Rand, McNally and Co.'s "A Week at the Fair," the official "History of the Mid-Winter Fair," the "History of the Cotton States Exposition," and contemporary publications.]



AT noon on March 4, 1893, President Harrison became a plain citizen of the great republic, and a plain citizen, Grover Cleveland, became President of the United States. This quiet exchange of places is one of the most striking features of our Government.

President Cleveland selected the following Cabinet: Secretary of State, Walter Q. Gresham, of Illinois (succeeded by Richard Olney, of Massachusetts); Secretary of the Treasury, John G. Carlisle, of Kentucky; Secretary of War, Daniel S. Lamont, of New York; Attorney-General, Richard Olney, of Massachusetts (succeeded by Judson Harmon, of Ohio);

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Postmaster-General, Wilson S. Bissell, of New York (succeeded by William L. Wilson, of West Virginia); Secretary of the Navy, Hilary A. Herbert, of Alabama; Secretary of the Interior, Hoke Smith, of Georgia (succeeded by David B. Francis, of Missouri); Secretary of Agriculture, J. Sterling Morton, of Nebraska.

The Inauguration

The day of the inauguration was among the worst ever known in Washington. In the morning the ground was covered with snow, and the feathery particles were still blown slantingly in the wind. The streets were soon filled with icy slush. Not a few deaths were the direct result of exposure to the weather by the two hundred thousand visitors that crowded the city to witness the inauguration ceremonies.

Zachary Taylor was the first President who took the oath of office and delivered the inaugural address in the open air. Previous to 1849 it had been read in the Senate Chamber. Jefferson, as we have learned, was the first President to be inaugurated in Washington.

Washington's first inaugural was 1,300 words in length; his second only 134. John Adams's inaugural was 2,300 words long; Jefferson's, 2,100; Madison's, 1,100 on both occasions; Monroe's, 3,300 and 4,400; John Quincy Adams's, 2,900; Andrew Jackson's first and second, each 1,100; Van Buren employed 3,800 words, and William Henry Harrison, the most voluminous of them all, 8,500.

John Tyler, in entering upon the duties of President, after the death of Harrison, addressed his inaugural of 1,600 words to the public, and published it in the newspapers, Congress not being in session. Polk employed nearly 5,000 words, and Taylor, 100. Fillmore simply announced the death of Taylor in a message of 260 words sent in to each House of Congress, and delivered no inaugural.

Previous Inaugurals

Franklin Pierce's address was 3,300 words; Lincoln's, on his first election, 3,500, and on his second only 500 words. Johnson took up the reins of Government after Lincoln's death in a brief message of 360 words. Grant's first inaugural was 1,100 words long; his second, 1,300. Hayes employed 2,400 words, and Garfield, 2,900.

Arthur followed the custom of other Vice-Presidents in succeeding to the Presidency through death by giving only a very short address of 400 words. Cleveland's first inaugural, which he committed to memory, was 1,600 words. Benjamin Harrison entered office with an inaugural of 4,500 words.

PRESIDENT CLEVELAND AND HIS SECOND CABINET

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THE WORLD'S COLUMBIAN EXPOSITION

The grandest celebration thus far in the history of our country was held in the city of Chicago to commemorate the four hundredth anniversary of the discovery of America by Christopher Columbus. So immense were the preliminary steps in this vast enterprise that they could not be completed in 1892, the true anniversary, which was therefore held one year later.

The Grandest Celebration

The strife for the honor of the World's Fair was keen among the leading cities, and New York was confident of securing the prize; but Western push and enterprise succeeded, and, on the 24th of February, 1890, Congress named Chicago as the favored place. On the 2d of the following July the site was selected. This extended from the point nearest the city, two and a half miles to the southern extremity of Jackson Park, comprising nearly seven hundred acres of attractively laid out grounds and lakes. Lake Michigan reached along the entire front, while in the background was the extensive South Park system. The site agreed upon by the Board of Directors was the section known as Jackson Park and the Midway Plaisance Jackson Park has a frontage of one and a half miles on Lake Michigan, and contains six hundred acres of ground, while the Midway Plaisance, connecting Jackson and Washington Parks, is a mile long and six hundred feet wide, affording an additional area of eighty-five acres.

To gain a clear idea of the enormous extent of the Columbian Exposition, let us compare it with the other world's fairs:

Other World's Fairs

Location and Year.	Acres Occupied.	Number of Feet Under Roof.	Number of Exhibitors.	Total Attendance.	Duration of Fair days.	Total Receipts.	Guarantee.	Cost.
London, 1857.....	21½	700,000	17,000	6,039,196	144	$1,780,000.00	British Gov't.	*
Paris, 1855	24½	1,866,000	22,000	5,162,330	200	6,441,200.00	French Gov't.	$5,000,000
London, 1862.....	23½	1,291,800	28,653	6,211,103	191	1,644,260.00	English Gov't	2,300,000
Paris, 1867	87	3,371,904	52,000	10,200,000	217	2,103,675.00	French Gov't.	*
Vienna, 1873.....	280	2,963,421	142,000	7,254,687	186	6,971,832.00	$4,500,000	7,850,000
Philadelphia, 1876	236	1,688,858	30,864	9,910,996	159	3,813,724.00	2,510,000	*
Paris, 1878	100	1,858,778	40,366	16,032,725	191	2,531,650.00	2,250,000	*
Paris, 1889	173	1,000,000	55,000	28,149,353	183	8,300,000.00	3,600,000	6,500,000
Chicago, 1893.....	645	5,000,000	65,422	21,530,854 Paid admissions.	183	33,290,065.58	19,500,000	18,750,000

* Run at a great loss. No report ever made, and exact amount of deficit cannot be obtained.

The following foreign governments made liberal appropriations for exhibits: Argentine Republic, Austria, Belgium, Bolivia, Brazil,

Colombia, Costa Rica, Denmark, Danish West Indies, Ecuador, France, Germany, Great Britain, Barbadoes, British Guiana, British Honduras, Canada, Cape Colony, Ceylon, India, Jamaica, Leeward Islands, New South Wales, New Zealand, Trinidad, Greece, Guatemala, Hawaii, Honduras, Haiti, Japan, Liberia, Mexico, Morocco, Netherlands, Dutch Guiana, Dutch West Indies, Nicaragua, Norway,

THE GOVERNMENT BUILDING

Orange Free State, Paraguay, Peru, Russia, Salvador, San Domingo, Spain, Cuba, Sweden, Uruguay.

It followed as a matter of course that every State and Territory in the Union entered heartily into the plan, the total appropriations by them amounting to more than $6,000,000. Chicago came forward with gigantic contributions, and it was found at the close of the Exhibition that the total number of paid admissions was $22,000,000, and that the receipts exceeded the expenses by some $2,000,000.

The Original Plan

The original plan contemplated ten main buildings: Manufactures, Administration, Machinery, Agriculture, Electricity, Mines, Transportation, Horticulture, Fisheries, and the Venetian Village, but a change of plan took in the Art Galleries and the Woman's Building, and finally the Forestry, Dairy, Stock Pavilion, Terminal

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Station, Music Hall, Peristyle, Casino, Choral, Anthropological, and many others were added.

On October 21, 1892, the grounds and buildings were opened and dedicated with appropriate ceremonies by Levi P. Morton, Vice-President of the United States, and presented by President Higinbotham, of the World's Columbian Exposition, to President Palmer, of the World's Columbian Commission. The Exposition opened May 1, 1893, and closed October 30 following.

The Mines and Mining Building

The dimensions of this building were 350 by 700 feet. As the name implies, the exhibit consisted of articles relating to mines and mining, which were grouped into 123 classes. Among these were: cement from Heidelberg, mosaics in Carlsbad stone, French asphalt specimens, French work in gold, platinum, and aluminum, silver and ores from New South Wales, marble, granite, nickel, copper, and platinum ores from Ontario, ores from British Columbia, Canada, Japan, Russia, Brazil, Cape of Good Hope, Spain, Mexico, and Chili, with a statue of "Liberty Enlightening the World" carved in salt.

In another portion of the same building were various ores from Colorado, Iowa, New Mexico, Arizona, Utah, Washington, Wyoming, Idaho, California, South Dakota, Wisconsin, Michigan, Ohio, Kentucky, Oregon, Pennsylvania, and other States. In this exhibit were also shown Tiffany's collection of precious stones, the statue of the "Silver Queen," German precious stones, tin plate, and a meteorite that fell in Arizona weighing more than half a ton.

Historical Documents

In the State Department, no one could fail to be impressed by the array of treasures. First of all was what seemed to be the Declaration of Independence as it came from the hand of its immortal author, Thomas Jefferson, and with the signatures of the signers, written more than one hundred years before. It was viewed with great interest, and probably all believed that it was the original Declaration itself, but truth compels us to say that such was not the fact. It was only a copy, for under no circumstances will the Government permit the genuine Declaration to leave the archives at Washington, where it is guarded with the most jealous care.

There, however, was the original petition of the United Colonies to George III., presented by Benjamin Franklin in 1774, together with the original journal of the Continental Congress. General Jackson, one of the most remarkable Presidents we ever had, was recalled

by his sword, and with what reverence we looked upon Lincoln's Emancipation Proclamation which struck the shackles from every bondman in the United States. Americans can feel little respect for George III., whose stubbornness cost him his colonies in this country, but his autograph letter was read with strange feelings by the myriad thousands who paused to study it. Of more living interest were the various proclamations of our own Presidents with their autographs, letters written by Washington, Franklin, the Adamses, Jefferson, Madison, Polk, Van Buren, Monroe, Lincoln, Grant, Arthur, and Hayes.

THE ELECTRICITY BUILDING

Precious Relics

Around the circle under the dome were other relics equally precious to every patriotic heart, among them being Washington's commission as commander-in-chief of the colonial forces, his sword, his diary, and his account-books and army reports; the sash used by Lafayette to bind up his wound at Brandywine; the calumet pipe smoked by Washington at the age of seventeen; Benjamin Franklin's cane; a waistcoat embroidered by Marie Antoinette; wampum made before the discovery of America; camp service of pewter, used by Washington throughout the Revolution; Bible brought over in the

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Mayflower by John Alden in 1620, and a part of the torch carried by "Old Put" into the wolf's den.

There were also a page from the Plymouth records of 1620 and 1621; a land patent issued in 1628; the commission from William III. creating the common pleas court in Massachusetts in 1696; the agreement in regard to enlarging Salem church in 1628; a page of record from one of the hideous witchcraft trials, held in 1692; the earliest charter of free government ever known, the Compact of Providence; a door-knocker that was brought to this country in the *Mayflower*, and the portraits of the Justices and Attorney-Generals of the Supreme Court of the United States.

Colonial Relics

Among the relics in the War Department were: A six-pounder bronze gun presented to the colonial forces by Lafayette; the four-pounder gun that fired the first shot in the War for the Union; the rifled gun that fired the last shot; cannon used in the Mexican War; some very old cast-iron cannon found in the Hudson River; Chinese cannon captured at Corea; bronze cannon captured at Yorktown; the oldest Blanchard lathe in existence; the flag displayed at the most northern point ever reached by man; boot-legs from which the starving Greely party made soup; relics of Sir John Franklin; a wagon that accompanied General Sherman's train through all his marches; the sacred shirt worn by Sitting Bull when Custer was killed in the battle of the Little Big Horn, and figures of officers and soldiers in the uniform of the War of 1812.

The Treasury Department was represented by the United States Mint in operation, a collection of historic medals, and the coins of various countries, ancient and modern; a ten-thousand dollar gold certificate and a silver certificate of the same denomination, with models of lighthouses and government telescopes and chronographs.

The Electricity Building

This building was 350 by 700 feet, and cost more than $400,000. We have all learned something of the marvelous discoveries made in electricity by Edison, the most wonderful inventor of the age. A few years ago, any one who had prophesied the phonograph or telephone or kinetoscope would have been set down as a lunatic or a crank; so that when we hear of some astounding feat Edison has almost accomplished, the safer plan is not to express any doubt, but "suspend judgment" until we learn the facts.

In the electricity buildings, therefore, the exhibits, while entrancing of themselves, were still more so in their promise of what is yet

FEDERAL UNIFORMS DURING THE CIVIL WAR. 1861-1865

to come. Doubtless we are on the verge of the most astounding discoveries that have come to man since creation,— discoveries that will affect civilization throughout the coming ages; such, for instance, as the new form of light that passes through opaque substances with the same facility as through those that are perfectly transparent.

MACHINERY HALL

The Americans are an inventive people, and one could spend, not hours, but days amid the wonders of Machinery Hall, speculating over the possibilities that yet await the explorers in a field of almost infinite extent.

One of the curiosities which attracted universal attention was the exact reproduction of the Convent of Santa Maria de la Rabida (Saint Mary of the Frontier), where, as we learned in the first part of this history, Christopher Columbus, tired and dispirited, stopped with his child and craved food and lodging, and from which, when he finally went forth, it was to discover the New World.

It cost $50,000 to build this model, which was stored with such precious relics that it was guarded night and day by United States troops. The collection, incomparable in its way, was made by Hon. William Eleroy Curtis, who traversed all Europe searching for

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relics of Columbus that might be placed on exhibition at the World's Fair. His success excelled all expectations.

A short distance away were moored the models of the three famous caravels, the *Santa Maria*, the *Nina* and the *Pinta*. There is no doubt that these are exact copies, to the minutest detail, of the small vessels that left Palos in August, 1492, on the most momentous voyage ever made by man. The Spanish Government built the *Santa Maria* and presented it to the United States, and the three

AGRICULTURAL BUILDING

The Memory of Columbus

made their first public appearance at Huelva, Spain, during the Columbus festivities held there in October, 1892. They started on their voyage across the Atlantic, February 18th following, the *Santa Maria* being commanded by Captain Concas, of the Spanish navy, and convoyed by a Spanish man-of-war. The *Nina*, commanded by Lieut. J. C. Colwell, of the United States navy, was convoyed by our cruiser *Newark*, while the *Pinta*, commanded by Lieutenant Howard, was convoyed by the *Bennington*. The officers and crews had a taste of the discomforts attending the original voyage, but reached Havana without mishap. They formed the most striking feature of the grand naval review, held in New York in April.

This structure was 800 feet long and 500 feet wide, with an annex 550 by 312 feet, erected at a cost of $620,000. The exhibits in the main building included cocoa, chocolate, and drugs from the Netherlands; wood pulp and revolving stand from Sweden; curious shoes and agricultural products from Denmark; agricultural products from France, the most striking being the Menier chocolate tower, which weighed 50 tons and was worth $40,000; fertilizers and products from Uruguay; an elephant tusk seven and a half feet long; wools, woods, and feathers from the Cape of Good Hope, the most attractive perhaps being a live Zulu "boy," six feet seven and a half inches tall; woods from New South Wales; a cheese from Canada weighing eleven tons; tea and coffee from Ceylon; a model of Gladstone's estate at Hawarden Castle, and appropriate exhibits from Germany, Spain, Brazil, Paraguay, Ecuador, British Guiana, Japan and Mexico.

The Agricultural Exhibit

In another section were specimens of what are grown in New York, Missouri, Washington, Ohio, Illinois, Pennsylvania, Wyoming, Colorado, Iowa, Nebraska, Michigan, Wisconsin, Montana, North Dakota, Maine, New Hampshire, Oklahoma, Connecticut, and Massachusetts. In the New England exhibit were excellent examples of the spinning-wheel of our ancestors, corn-cribs, and other conveniences, or rather necessities. An ingenious monument in soap showed the origin of the American flag. The articles in this building were so numerous that it would be tedious to read even a list of them.

A Varied Exhibit

This vast building was 787 feet wide and 1,687 feet long, with a ground area of about thirty-one acres and a gallery space of forty-four acres. It was the largest building in the world, and the largest roof structure ever made. Its construction required 17,000,000 feet of lumber, 13,000,000 pounds of steel, and 2,000,000 pounds of iron, with a total cost of $1,700,000. By way of comparison, it has been stated that any church in Chicago could be placed in the vestibule of St. Peter's church at Rome, but this building was three times as large as St. Peter's. The Roman Coliseum of ancient Rome was capable of seating 80,000 persons, but this structure was four times as large. In the central hall, which was a single room without a supporting pillar, 75,000 persons could be comfortably seated, while the whole building would seat 300,000 persons. There were 7,000,000 feet of lumber in the floors, and it took five car-loads of nails to

The Manufactures and Liberal Arts Building

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secure the 215 car-loads of lumber to the joists. To grow the amount of lumber required in its construction would take 1,100 acres of Michigan pine land, while the iron and steel in the roof would build two Brooklyn bridges. There were eleven acres of glass in the skylights, and the roof lacked only eleven feet of being as high as the Bunker Hill monument in Boston. Its ground plan was twice the size of the great pyramid of Cheops.

Fine Arts Building

The building devoted to fine arts was 320 by 500 feet, with two annexes each 120 by 200 feet, erected at a cost of $670,000. The collection of painting and statuary from all parts of the world was

FINE ARTS BUILDING

the finest ever exhibited anywhere, and it would be useless to attempt even the most meagre description of it.

Leather Building

The Leather Building was 150 by 575 feet, and among the curiosities shown were machines in operation, each of which turned out 1,000 pairs of shoes a day.

Forestry Building

The Forestry Building was 208 by 528 feet, and no iron was used in its construction, wooden pins taking the place of bolts and rods. A study of the exhibits gave one a fair idea of the almost endless variety of wood grown in various parts of the Union, besides those of New South Wales, Mexico, Brazil, Germany and Paraguay.

The dimensions of this building were 250 by 998 feet. In the dome were shown a miniature mountain and a pyramid of shrubbery; a crystal cavern under the mountain; a century plant; a sago palm; a model of the Capitol at Washington in climbing palms, and flowers from the Cape of Good Hope.

Horticultural Building

In another portion were specimens of the Egyptian paper plant, from which the ancient papyrus was made, while among the American fruits were Oregon pears weighing nearly four pounds apiece, a potato fifteen inches long weighing five pounds, and a strawberry eleven inches in circumference. The United States can certainly claim supremacy as regards the size of its fruits.

Woman's Building

The success of the Columbian Exposition was due in a large degree to Mrs. Potter Palmer, President of the Board of Lady Managers. The dimensions of the Woman's Building were 199 by 388 feet. It was the design of Miss Sophia G. Hayden, of Boston, and was of the Italian Renaissance style. The caryatides were modeled by Miss Yandel, of Louisville, and the groups of figures on the roof-line were the work of Miss Rideout, of San Francisco. Many of the painted decorations were important, showing the artistic skill of Mrs. MacMonnies and Miss Cassatt. The eastern parlor was furnished and decorated by the women of Cincinnati, and other smaller rooms by the women of California, Kentucky, and Connecticut. The library contained the literary works of the women of all countries, and the ceiling was painted by Mrs. Dora Wheeler Keith.

Many important and interesting gatherings of women were held in the assembly-room, where instructive discussions took place, and addresses of marked excellence were given by the leading women of the country.

The Foreign Buildings

A striking feature of the Exposition was the great interest shown by almost all the foreign nations. Some of them had buildings of their own, and in the aggregate millions of dollars were appropriated by those countries in contributing to the success of the grand enterprise.

The Victoria House was a typical "half-timber" structure of the time of Henry VIII. Although terra-cotta was extensively used in the lower story, with red-brick facing and mullioned windows, the building was a fine example of the comfortable old-fashioned English manor house.

The interesting exhibits included a large scale map showing the

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discoveries made by Englishmen in America; educational displays; post-office exhibits, contrasting the old and the new systems, and a Seychelles cocoanut-plant. This plant is a rare curiosity. "Chinese" Gordon, who was a learned and deeply religious man, considered it to be the genuine "forbidden fruit of Eden."

Canadian Exhibits

The Canadian Building was two stories in height, with three entrances, and, including the veranda, covered an area of about 6,000 square feet. It had one of the best locations in the park, and, in order to show the variety of woods indigenous to Canada, the interior walls, ceilings, and floors of the pavilion were finished with them, all being highly polished and very beautiful. The building was devoted mainly to the comfort of visitors from Canada, and every possible convenience was supplied to them.

Adjoining this building was the Australia House, erected by New South Wales, whose people manifested a deep interest in the Exposition. The building was neat and artistic, capitally arranged, and contained the eight offices of the commission.

The Spanish Building was a three-fourths production of a section of the Silk Exchange at Valencia, Spain, whose erection was begun a short time before Columbus sailed on his first voyage. In the tower all defaulting and bankrupt merchants were imprisoned. In the building were displayed many relics of Columbus, among them being several of his letters, a sword once owned by Queen Isabella, one that had been used by Cortez in his conquest of Mexico, ancient artillery, with small, odd-looking cannon, etc.

The German Building was an imposing structure. In its belfry was a chime of three bells made of cast steel at Bochum on the Rhine, and whose final destination was the "Church of Mercy," erected at Berlin in memory of the late Empress Augusta. Within the building were groups of statuary, panels illustrating the birth and crucifixion of Christ, Schulter's statue of St. John, a library of rare German works, antique German furniture, famous paintings, mammoth clocks, old manuscripts, and valuable musical works.

Haitian Exhibit

Haiti was modestly represented by a building in the southern colonial style. On the front portico the coat-of-arms of the Republic was painted, with the motto, and below the words, "Republique Hatienne, 1492, 1892, 1804." The first date referred to the discovery of America, the second to the four hundredth anniversary, and the last is the date of Haitian independence. In this building

was shown the beautiful statue "Reverie," the work of Laforestrie, a native sculptor, which took the second prize at the Paris Salon. Other curiosities were an anchor from one of the ships of Columbus, relics of the original inhabitants of the island, the bust and relics of Toussaint l'Ouverture, paintings, etc.

The Government of Siam erected a royal pavilion, whose design was furnished by a native architect. It was a small structure, only 26 feet square, with a front elevation of 32 feet. It was made of teakwood, elegantly carved and gilded, while the exhibits included fine specimens of gems, rosins, dyes, silks, cottons, grains, and tobacco.

East India Exhibit

The East India Building was not erected by the Government, though it gave some unofficial aid to the enterprise. Many articles were shown, among them being an Indian temple or shrine, figures of Buddha, stories of Hindoo mythology, illustrated in wood and stone, and on brass and silk, copies of famous monuments, tusks of ivory carved into lace patterns, while the entire building was decorated in the striking colors of the Orient.

The Colombia Building occupied a space of 45 by 45 feet, with conservatories on each side filled with lovely tropical plants. It was two stories in height, the first occupied by an exceptionally interesting collection of antiquities taken from prehistoric graves in Colombia, among them being water-bottles, human images, helmets, trumpets, breast-plates, bangles, necklaces, anklets, and other articles all made of pure gold. There were also many mummies and specimens of ancient pottery. These and many other interesting exhibits were presented after the close of the Exposition to the Queen Regent of Spain as an expression of gratitude for her services as arbitrator in the disputed boundary between Colombia and Venezuela.

Swedish Exhibit

The Swedish Building was built of brick and timber brought from Sweden. The interior gave a view of the capital, with exhibits of Swedish sports, ships, the famous Swedish iron ores, and the manufactured products of iron, china goods, glass products, and gold and silver work.

Venezuela, despite the many troubles through which she had recently passed, erected a building that was a strong evidence of the pluck and energy of her people. The single-story building was constructed of white marble in the Græco-Roman style of architecture On the left of the three fine towers ornamenting the façade was a

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life-size statue of Columbus, and on the right one of Bolivar, the Washington of the country. There, too, were relics of great historical value, many of which were prehistoric. The flag carried by Pizarro during his conquest of Peru was shown.

The Turkish Building was a reproduction of a fountain erected in Constantinople two centuries ago by Selim the Great. The exterior walls were adorned by exquisite carvings in a species of hardwood of great beauty. In addition, there were alternate panels of inlaid wood and mother-of-pearl work, with an occasional text in Arabic characters taken from the Koran. The effect of the work when first viewed was somewhat bewildering because of its dazzling brightness.

The exhibit of Turkey could not fail to be attractive with its wealth of festooned hangings of rich fabrics, the display of silks, brilliant gems, and costly jewelry, gums, gold and silver wares, soft fabrics, daggers, and Oriental wares.

Brazilian Exhibit

The Brazilian Building had its ground plan in the form of a Greek cross, the dimensions on the outside being 148 by 148 feet, the upper story surmounted by a central dome made of steel, and the style of architecture French Renaissance. In the bas-reliefs of the façades and those on the stylobate of the dome the Indian figures were allegorical. The building was not only beautiful but admirably constructed at a cost of $90,000.

Guatemalan Exhibit

The Guatemala Building was square in shape, with 111 feet on each side, its style of architecture being original and nothing classical in its character. The chief exhibit of Guatemala was its coffee, while the space around the building was turned into a large garden, in which grew coffee, bananas, and the tropical plants peculiar to that country.

The Costa Rica Building was 103 feet long by 60 feet wide, and of the Doric style. A beautiful exhibit was made of tropical birds and plants. Norway erected a structure after the model of the old "Stavkirke," a style dating back to the twelfth century. It was put together in Norway of native pine, taken apart, and sent to this country, where Norwegian workmen put it together.

The Ceylon Court was an antique Buddhist temple, displaying the Dravidian style, as found among the ancient ruins of that island. The elegant Cinghalese woods used in the construction were first fitted in Ceylon and then sent to this country, where the building was reconstructed. The court was 145 feet long, with a central hall

CONFEDERATE UNIFORMS — CIVIL WAR — 1861-1865

50 feet wide. The decorations were so intricate and elaborate that one might spend hours in their study without discovering all their astonishing beauty.

The French Government Building consisted of two pavilions, united by a semi-circular colonnade, at the centre of which was a beautiful fountain decorated with statuary brought from France. In the smaller pavilion was the large room for the city of Paris. There the leading merchants of the city allowed the public to view their choicest wares. The walls were hung with the finest Gobelin tapestry, and the room adjoining contained only works of art and valuable bric-a-brac.

Lafayette Relics

In the larger pavilion were shown some of the finest paintings of the French nation. In the "De Lafayette Room" were the numerous interesting mementos and historical relics connected with Lafayette's career in this country. No other foreigner can ever hold so warm a place in the memory of Americans as this friend of Washington and of our country. The building was only one story in height, but it was 250 feet long by 175 feet wide. The most instructive exhibit was the models and plans of schools, prisons, hospitals, and the sewerage systems of Paris.

Midway Plaisance

A peculiar and unique interest attached to a narrow strip of land, nearly a mile in length, extending westward from the north end of Jackson Park, and known as the Midway Plaisance. It formed a part of the Chicago park system connecting Jackson and Washington parks. It was devoted to the amusement features of the Fair, and attracted great interest among the millions of visitors.

The Help from the States

We have thus gained an imperfect idea of the contributions of most of the foreign governments to the World's Fair at Chicago. The grand enterprise, however, was of necessity purely American, and its chief glory lay in the magnificent support it received from our own country. Had that been withheld, no aid from the "outside world" could have made it successful. Splendid as was the support given by the imperial city of Chicago itself, the Exposition could not have survived the indifference and lukewarmness of the States as a whole, for the Exposition was that of the United States of America, and every patriotic American felt a pride in it, and was eager to contribute his utmost energy towards its success.

The California Midwinter Fair, an echo of the Columbian Exposition, was opened on January 27, 1894. New Year's Day was originally

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set, but many of the exhibits had not arrived, and the formal opening was deferred to the date named. The gates, however, were thrown open on the first, and thousands of visitors were present. The beautiful monumental "Prayer-Book Cross," the gift of the late G. W. Childs, was dedicated. This cross, which stands on a knoll near the main buildings, commemorates the landing of the great English navigator, Sir Francis Drake, in 1580, from his ship *The Golden Hinde*, at what has since been known as "Drake's Bay," and the preaching there by Drake's chaplain, Francis Fletcher, of the first sermon in English on the Pacific Coast. The monument is 57 feet high and is in the form of a Celtic cross, with the arms 15 feet in height and 23 feet across.

The Mid-winter Fair

Ground was first broken for the fair in San Francisco on August 24, 1893. Its cost was nearly $5,000,000, and its principal buildings were: Manufactures and Liberal Arts; Mechanic Arts; Horticultural and Agricultural; Fine Arts; Administration Building and Festival Hall. One of the most interesting features was the reproduction of a pioneer mining-camp, with all its accessories, including a number of the identical cabins in which some of the "Bonanza kings" of California's later days began their lives of privation and toil in the diggings. There was also an exact reproduction of the famous fort of Captain Sutter, as it was when visited by Frémont the explorer in 1846, before any one suspected the prodigious deposits of gold that lay hardly below the surface of the surrounding country. Hundreds of relics of the days of the "Argonauts" were exhibited and viewed with rapt attention by the multitudes of visitors.

The Principal Buildings

The buildings were colored in Oriental fashion, and with their surroundings of orange-trees, magnolias, and palms, and the deep blue of the California sky, they formed a picture of semi-tropical luxuriance and splendor. The interest in the fair, which was moderate at first, owing to its following on the heels of the Columbian Exposition, steadily grew, as its numerous beauties became better known, and its millions of visitors represented every part of the world.

On the 18th of September, 1895, President Cleveland, at his summer home on the shore of Buzzard's Bay, Mass., pressed the electric button which set in motion the machinery of the Cotton States Exposition at Atlanta, Ga., a thousand miles distant.

This exposition was one of the most remarkable and creditable in the whole history of the South. The feeling was strong in that part of our country that it had not been fitly represented at the Columbian Exposition, and this was an attempt to make up for that deficiency, if such it could be considered.

The Atlanta Exposition

Undertaken during a period of extreme financial depression, $500,000 was quickly subscribed in Atlanta, while Congress recognized the exposition as national, and appropriated $200,000 for a government exhibit. The site was nearly 200,000 acres in extent, and was in Piedmont Park, where were still to be seen the remains of Sheridan's rifle-pits, during the furious fighting round the town more than thirty years before. The view was beautiful, and an artificial lake gave water frontage to the principal buildings and conveyance by gondolas and electric launches to and from different points of the grounds. The buildings and grounds represented an outlay of more than $2,000,000, and the largest electrically-lighted fountain in the world threw water into the air at the rate of 15,000 gallons a minute.

Officers of the Exposition

Charles A. Collier was president and director-general of the exposition; Walter G. Cooper, chief of the department of publicity and promotion, and Grant Wilkins, chief of construction and landscape engineer. It was decided to keep the exposition open until the last day of the year, closing it on Sundays. The first of the opening exercises was a military and civic parade, participated in by United States regulars, volunteer companies from different points in the South, 5,000 Grand Army men, and many distinguished visitors.

Bishop Nelson made the opening prayer, followed by an address by President Collier, another by Mrs. Joseph Thompson, for the Woman's Board, one by Booker T. Washington, an address of welcome to the city by Mayor King, and to the State by Judge George Brown. These were followed by an exposition ode by Frank L. Stanton, an oration by Judge Emory Spear, and a benediction by Bishop Becker.

A Remarkable Address

While all these were in excellent taste, breathing the true spirit of Southern hospitality and national patriotism, the speech of Booker T. Washington was in many respects the most striking of all. This man is a negro born in slavery. He was educated at Hampton, Va., and, developing marked ability, he established the Tuskeegee (Ala.) Normal and Industrial Institute for colored youth. The funds were

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mainly obtained from New York and New England, and the institution has been carried to a wonderful degree of efficiency and success. Mr. Washington's presence on a distinctly Southern platform among such distinguished company was an event that, ten years before, no one would have believed among the possibilities.

His audience was prepared to be indulgent and sympathetic, for comparatively little was expected from him; but very quickly all became interested. Then they began to applaud, and his wise and eloquent sentences brought forth round after round of delighted applause. In that brief address, the gifted man secured acknowledgment as the foremost colored educational leader in the South.

HONOLULU FROM THE BELL TOWER, H. I.

A Great Object-Lesson

The buildings were about thirty in number, spacious, substantial, artistic, and well adapted to the purposes to which they were devoted. Every Southern State was appropriately represented, while exhibits were made by five Northern States, which, with a number of Central and South American republics, had buildings on the grounds. The exposition achieved the full measure of success, and exerted a marked and beneficial influence upon the industrial and commercial interests of the South, and, in a higher sense, upon the country at large. It was fraternal in spirit, and awoke a responsive echo to the farthest northern and western bounds of our country; it showed as never before the amazing capabilities of the South; in truth, it was a revelation to the South itself, few of whose people suspected the

marvellous resources of that region until this impressive object-lesson was spread before them.

The location of the twelve islands composing Hawaii, lying in the Pacific, to the southwest of California, early attracted the attention of navigators. The field was a promising one for missionaries, who visited the islands during the first quarter of the century, and did a beneficent work for civilization and Christianity. There is an old saying that the sons of ministers and notably good men are generally the worst sort of people. In Hawaii the sons of the missionaries seized the most valuable portions of the semi-tropical islands, and divided the principal offices among themselves. The royal native family retained rule, but were so shorn of power that their reign was merely nominal.

PALM TREES, QUEEN'S HOSPITAL, HONOLULU

King Kalakaua

In 1849 Hawaii and the United States made a treaty of commerce and for the extradition of criminals, and a reciprocity treaty was concluded in 1875. This gave a prodigious impulse to the sugar industry, which was virtually in the hands of foreigners. In 1891 Congress further confirmed treaty rights, and the natives saw that the islands had become the ripe plum that was to be picked by foreigners.

David Kalakaua, born in 1836, became king of Hawaii in 1874, his elevation to that office being due to the aid of American and

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English ships. He had little ability, and preferred the grosser pleasures of life to the good of his subjects. He was soured and resentful at sight of the greed of the foreigners, and encouraged the cry of "Hawaii for the Hawaiians," which the native members of the legislature raised. The people who controlled the king were reactionists, but in 1887 the progressists, by a vigorous movement, compelled the king to sign a new constitution, which left him hardly a shred of authority. The right of suffrage was given to the white residents, and closer relations were established with the United States, to whom Pearl Harbor, in Oahu, was ceded, our country thus securing one of the best naval stations in the Pacific.

In 1891 Kalakaua died in San Francisco, while engaged in

THE KING'S RESIDENCE AT WAIKIKI, HONOLULU

Liliuokalani

negotiating a treaty of reciprocity with the United States. His sister Liliuokalani, two years younger, thereupon became queen. She is a coarse, revengeful woman, with a striking illustration of the absurdity of committing the destinies of a nation to any man or woman solely because of being "born to the purple." She shared the resentment of her people, and found the position of a monarch only in name intolerable. Like an Indian chief plotting for revenge, she bided her time, which came, as she believed, in January, 1893, when there was an angry split in the leading party. She called the

legislature together and proposed a new constitution, which took the right of voting from the whites, and gave back to the crown the many privileges taken from it. Her course was so radical that her friends were fearful of the consequences, and induced her to modify her scheme, which she did by declaring that all changes in the fundamental law would be made in accordance with the method provided in the old constitution.

THE KING'S NEW PALACE, HONOLULU

A Provisional Government Established

This did not lessen the alarm of the white residents in the island, who had little faith in her promises, which she would not hesitate to break if self-interest could be aided thereby. Many believed that a massacre was among the probabilities. The United States man-of-war *Boston* was lying in the harbor of Honolulu, and the American residents appealed to her commander for protection. He promptly responded—indeed, so promptly that he precipitated the very trouble that was feared, and gave cause for many of the complaints made by the royal party. American troops were landed, the Queen's minister of foreign affairs and the governor of the island vigorously protesting, with the assurance that not the slightest political change would be made except in accord with the spirit and letter of the old constitution. Nevertheless, the citizens and residents of the islands organized, declared the monarchy at an end, and a provisional government was established until terms of union with the United States should be agreed upon.

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This was decisive work, but it was followed by that which was still more so. On the 1st of February, 1894, the government formally placed itself under the protectorate of the United States, and the Stars and Stripes were hoisted over the government building by a force of marines. The American minister Stevens was delighted over the facile manner in which he believed Hawaii was to become a part of the United States, where the sentiment was strongly in favor of its annexation.

Steps Toward Annexation

President Harrison authorized the presence on the island of such force as might be needed to protect the lives and property of the Americans there, but he disavowed the protectorate. Matters, however, remained unchanged, while the sentiment in favor of annexing the island rapidly grew in the United States. It did not take long to frame a treaty acceptable to President Harrison. By its terms, the government of Hawaii remained as it was, the supreme power being vested in a commissioner of the United States, who could veto any of the acts of the local government. The public debt was to be assumed by the United States, which country was to pension Liliuokalani at the rate of $20,000 a year and pay her daughter $150,000. President Harrison recommended the ratification of the treaty, and expressed the fear that delay upon our part would result in some other power securing the islands.

Cleveland's Change of Policy

Thus matters stood on the 4th of March, 1893, when President Cleveland came into office. His sentiments were exactly the reverse of those of his predecessor. He did not believe that there would have been any revolution in Hawaii except for the landing of the marines from the *Boston*, and he would have been glad to replace the deposed queen upon the throne of her country. He withdrew the treaty from the Senate, and sent James H Blount, of Georgia, as a special commissioner to Hawaii, with full authority to make investigation of its relations with our Government. Well aware of the President's sentiments, Commissioner Blount, on the 1st of April, ordered the American flag hauled down, and formally terminated the protectorate. In the following month, Minister Stevens was recalled and succeeded by Mr. Blount as minister plenipotentiary.

But brief as was the existence of the protectorate, it gave the provisional government a good chance to establish its strength. Energy, tact, and wisdom were displayed. A force of more than a thousand men were armed and drilled, malcontents overawed,

OAHU
Kahuku Point
Kahuku Ranch
Mokuauia I.
Laie Bay
Waimea Bay
Haula
Kaena Pt.
Kahana Bay
Kaoio Point
Makua
Lahilahi
Leleiohoku
Waianae
Nanakuli
Barbers Pt.
Kaleia
KANEOHE HARBOR
Mokapu Peninsula
Mokolea
Kailua Bay
Mokulua Islands
Waimanalo Anch
Manana I.
Makapuu Head
PEARL HARBOR
HONOLULU
Diamond Head
Waialae Bay
TO JAMESTOWN HR., 2,602 MILES.
TO UNALASKA, 2,018 MILES.
TO PORTLAND, ORE., 2,480 MILES.
TO VANCOUVER, B. C., 2,368 MILES.
TO SAN FRANCISCO, 2,089 MILES.
TO ACAPULCO, MEXICO, 3,310
CHANNEL
KAIWI
MOLOKAI
Lae o Ka Ilio
Kalaupapa
Leper Settlement
Kalawao
Pelekunu
Waikakaa
Kaunakakai Harbor
TO Lae o Ka Laau
TO KAHULUI, 90 MILES.
TO LAHAINA, 73 MILES.
21°
KAI O KALOHI
Kanalo Harbor
Kahanaiu Harbor
Pukoo Harbor
Napili
Awalua
Wahiu Point
Kaena Point
Honopu
Fire Needles
(120 feet)
LANAI
Kaumalapau
Manele
Ornapuka
KEALAIKAHIKE CHANNEL
KAHOOLA
Kealaikahiki Point
TO BONHAM ISLANDS, 2,038 MILES.
TO APIA, SAMOA ISLANDS, 2,240 MILES.
TO SIDNEY, AUS., 4,594 MILES.
TO AUCKLAND, N. Z., 3,850 MILES.
TO WELLINGTON, N. Z., 4,163 MILES.
TO CHRISTMAS ISLAND, 1,075 MILES.
TO TAHITI, 2,399 MILES.
TO PUNTA ARENAS, CHILI, 6,379 MILES.
TO CALLAO, PERU, 5,147 MILES.
TO VALPARAISO, CHILI, 5,916 MILES.
1
160°
2
159°
A
TO YOKOHAMA, JAPAN, 3,445 MILES.
KU-WAIKAHI CHANNEL
Haena Point
Kalihiwai Bay
Kapuni Point
TO HANALEI, 120 MILES.
Alapu Point
Anahola
Kanala Point
Polihale
Kapaa
Wailua
KAUAI
Mana Point
Konole Point
Hanamaulu Bay
Nawiliwili Harbor
Kawai Point
TO NAWILIWILI, 97 MILES.
HONGKONG, 4,917 MILES.
Hanapepe Bay
Waimea Harbor
Lawai Bay
Makahuena Point
NIIHAU
Kaaki
Oku Point
Punwai Point
Ki
Kona Point
Sinclair
Yam Bay
Pueo Point
Cooks Anchorage
Pahau Point
Sape
Kawaihoa
Kaumakona
KAIEIE WAHO CHANNEL
WESTERN ISLANDS
OF
HAWAII
ON SAME SCALE AS MAIN MAP.
160°
159°

Longitude West from Greenwich.
156°
155°
MAP OF HAWAII
SCALES.
Statute Miles, 69.16 = 1 Degree.
0 5 10 20 30 40 50
Kilometres, 111.307 = 1 Degree.
0 5 10 20 30 40 50 60 70
Rand, McNally & Co.'s New Business Atlas Map of Hawaii.
Copyright, 1898, by Rand, McNally & Co.
PANAMA, C. A., 4,665 MILES.
CHANNEL
MAUI
Kahakuloa Point
Makeehia
Wailuku
Kahului
Spreckelsville
Maalaea
Puunawa
Olowalu
Ukumehame
Lahaina
Honokawai
Honokaanaui
Honolua
Honanana
Kahana
Nahiku
Malaeloa
Kapuaokahi Bay (Hana)
Kauiki Head
Alau I.
Pukakuloa
Hanua
Ahole
Mokuia
Ka Lae o Ka Ilio
Kiakeana
Pohaku Enea
Cape Hanamanioa
ALALAKEIKI CHANNEL
TO MAHUKONA 140 MILES.
TO KAILUA, 160 MILES.
ALENUIHAHA
CHANNEL
Upolu Point
Honoipu Landing
Union Mill
Kohala
Halawa
Keokea Harbor
Akoko Point
Waimanu
Laupahoehoe
Kukuihaele
Honokaa
Paauhau
Mill
Kohalalele
Ookala
Laupahoehoe Point
Mahukona Harbor
Waiokailio
Kawaihae Bay
Puako Bay
Honokaope Bay
Kaanau Point
Kiholo Bay
Lae Mano
Kuhoiawa Bay
Makolea Point
Keahole Point
Wawahiwa Point
Kaiwi Point
Kaloa Point
Keikiwaha Point
Honaunau Bay
Lepeamoa Rock
Ka Lae Paakai
Lae o Kamakahiki
Okoe Landing
Ke Au o Kanewaa
Kauna Point
156°
Ka Lae
Kaaluala
SOUTH KOHALA
NORTH KOHALA
SOUTH HAMAKUA
NORTH HAMAKUA
HILO
KONA
HAWAII
Mauna Kea
13,805
Mauna Loa
13,675
Halfway Ho.
Volcano House
Kilauea
4000
Halfway House
Keauhou
Punaluu
Honuapo
PUNA
Hilo Bay
Waiakea
Leleiwi Point
Haena
Makuu
Cape Kumukahi
Keahialaka
Opihikao
Kehena
Kalapana
Kahaualea
Nahaku Point
Hakalau Bay
Honomu
Alia Point
Onomea Bay
Pauka Pt.
HILO BAY
155°
21°
20°

treasonable utterances suppressed, while the old alien and sedition laws of our country were improved by an enactment of a fine of $100 and an imprisonment for thirty days upon any one speaking against the provisional government.

Convinced that the queen should be restored, President Cleveland sent Albert S. Willis thither for the purpose of taking such steps as he could looking to such restoration. The movement must have succeeded, but for the brutal stubbornness of Liliuokalani herself. She was determined to have the lives of the leaders who had conspired against her, and to banish their families. This was more than could be conceded, and at the same time the Dole government curtly refused to comply with Minister Willis's request to relinquish its authority to the queen.

Stubbornness of Liliuokalani

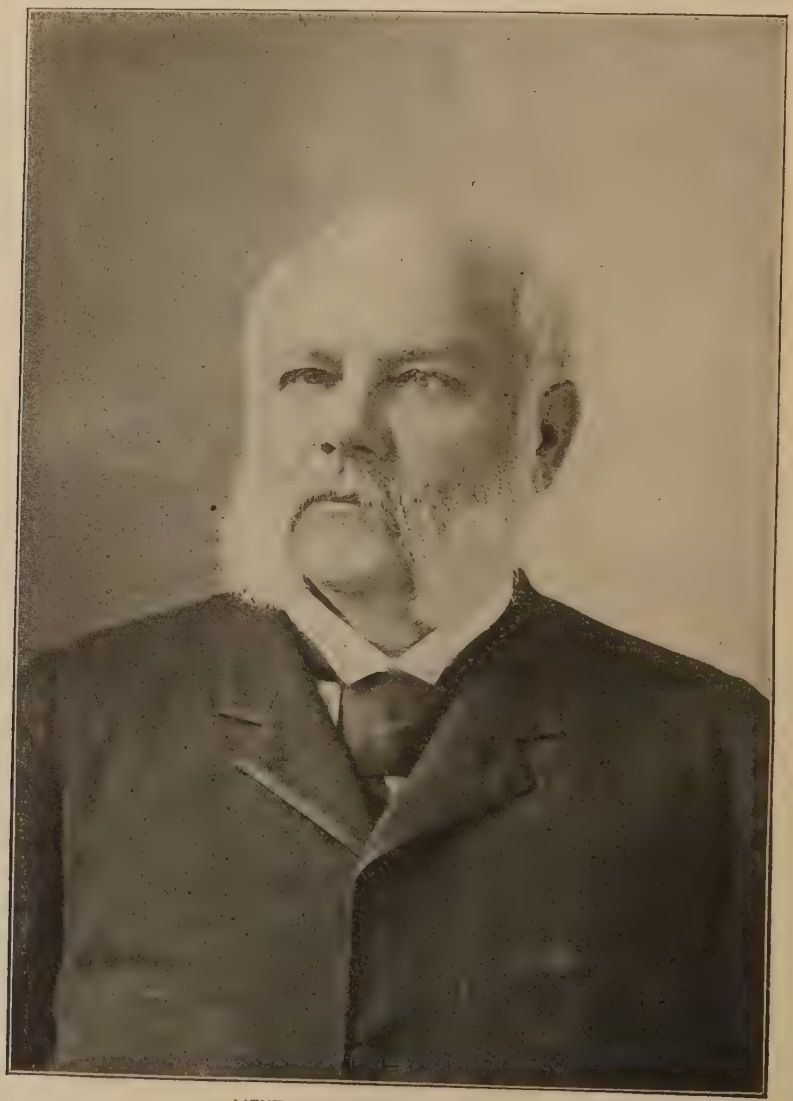
President Cleveland now found himself in front of an insurmountable wall, for he could not use force without the sanction of Congress, which from the first was hotly opposed to his course in Hawaiian affairs. Meanwhile, the provisional government proved its right to live by summarily suppressing a rebellion, and, after imposing severe penalties upon the rebels, relaxed its harshness and showed mercy towards them. The queen, having been arrested, solemnly renounced for herself and heirs all claim to the throne, urging her subjects to do the same, and declared her allegiance to the republic.

Minister Willis was compelled to say that the provisional government and its supporters included the most progressive, intelligent and patriotic people on the island; that the government was liberal, impartial, secure, just to all, and that it was wisely administered, and the Americans had been ignored to the preferment of other nationalities. It was not the report expected or desired, but the character of Minister Willis precluded any questioning of its truthfulness.

Lieutenant-General Schofield

On the 29th of September, 1895, Lieutenant-General John M. Schofield, having reached the age of sixty-four years, was retired from his command of the United States army. In accordance with the rule, he retained his rank and three-fourths of his pay. He is a native of Chautauqua County, N. Y., and having been appointed a cadet to West Point, from Illinois, was graduated in 1853, in the same class with Sheridan, MacPherson, and the Confederate General John B. Hood. He served in the First Regiment of artillery, and was assistant professor at West Point in 1855-60. He was

commissioned major of the First Missouri Volunteers at the outbreak of the war, and served as chief of staff for General Lyon, who was killed at the battle of Wilson's Creek. His promotion was rapid.



LIEUT.-GEN. JOHN M. SCHOFIELD

He was appointed brigadier-general of Missouri militia, acting as such until November, 1862, when he became major-general of volunteers, and commanded the Department of Missouri in 1863-4.

The services of General Schofield have already been noted down to the surrender of General Johnston, April 26, 1865, at which he was present. In June following he was sent to Europe on a special mission by the State Department, and remained abroad for a year. On his return he was appointed commander of the Military District of Virginia, retaining charge, 1867–68; was Secretary of War, 1868–69, when he was made major-general and assigned to the Department of Missouri. He commanded the Division of the Pacific, 1870–76, and again in 1882–83; President Grant, who held his scholarly attainments in high esteem, appointed him superintendent of the Military Academy, 1876–81. He commanded the Division of Missouri, 1883–86, and in the latter year was placed in charge of the Division of the Atlantic and the Department of the East. Upon the death of General Sheridan in 1888, Schofield succeeded him in command of the army, his headquarters being in Washington. By special act of Congress the rank of lieutenant-general was revived and conferred upon Schofield in February, 1895.

Promotion of General Miles

Major-General Nelson A. Miles succeeded to the place of General Schofield. He was born at Wachusett, Mass., August 8, 1839. General Miles seems to be an illustration of the truth that generals, like poets, are born, not made. He had never seen the inside of the famous Military Academy at West Point, and was engaged in business when the war broke out. He joined the Twenty-Second Massachusetts volunteers as lieutenant. He had always felt an interest in military matters, and was possessed of excellent judgment and great personal bravery. He soon attracted attention in the Army of the Potomac, and was in every battle in which the army took part, with a single exception, down to the surrender at Appomattox. At Spottsylvania he captured Lieutenant-General Bushrod Johnson and his whole division, and at Five Forks he prevented the defeat of our army by rescuing Warren's Fifth Corps and Sheridan's cavalry.

Services of Gen. Miles

Miles received the rapid promotion he had so well earned. Within a year he became lieutenant-colonel of the Sixty-First New York infantry, and in a few weeks was appointed colonel of the same regiment. In 1864, he was made brigadier-general of volunteers, and at the beginning of the following year he became major-general of volunteers. Upon being mustered out of the volunteer service he was given command of the Fourth United States Infantry, where

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he remained for three years, when he was transferred to the Fifth Infantry. His services as an Indian fighter have been of the most brilliant kind. He commanded the Indian Territory expedition of

GENERAL MILES

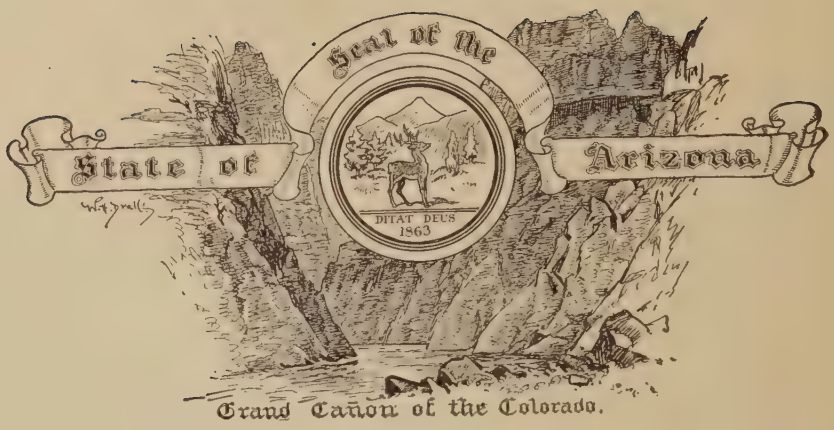
1873, drove Sitting Bull into Canada, captured Chief Joseph, and, in 1878, took prisoners the troublesome band of Bannocks in Yellowstone Park. He succeeded in bringing in Sitting Bull,

thereby doing an inestimable service to Montana and the Dakotas. As we have learned, he captured Geronimo in 1886, and displayed admirable tact and skill in subduing without serious fighting the formidable Indian uprising of 1890–91.

General Miles was commissioned brevet-brigadier-general, March 2, 1867; brigadier-general, December, 1880, and major-general in 1890. He commanded the Department of Missouri until 1894, when upon the retirement of Major-General O. O. Howard he succeeded him, in command of the Department of the East. General Miles commanded the troops called out in 1894 to suppress the rioting in Chicago.

He represented the United States army at the seat of the Turco-Grecian war, and also at Queen Victoria's Diamond Jubilee in 1897, and commanded the army during the war with Spain. On June 6, 1900, he was promoted to the rank of lieutenant-general, and retired on account of age, August 8, 1903. The record of General Miles is of the most honorable character. He proved in every test that he was a patriot, a soldier of the loftiest courage, and a leader of high military ability.

With the retirement of General Miles, the office of Commanding-General of the Army was abolished, such command being exercised directly by the Secretary of War, with the Chief of Staff as adviser. General Samuel B. M. Young was made lieutenant-general, August 8, 1903, on the retirement of General Miles, and Brigadier-General Leonard Wood became a major-general. General Adna R. Chaffee was made lieutenant-general on the retirement of General Young, January 9, 1904, and succeeded him as Chief of Staff.



Grand Cañon of the Colorado.

CHAPTER LXXXIX

CLEVELAND'S SECOND ADMINISTRATION, 1893–97 (CONTINUED)

[*Authorities:* The following chapter is devoted to a history of strikes in the United States, including their causes and results. It is a history calculated to arouse sympathy for the workingmen of our country and anxiety for the stability of our Government. Yet to the thinker whose mind is illumined by the lessons of history, and who believes in the pre-eminence of brains in a few over the brawn of many, there is no real occasion for alarm.

Other things being equal, acquired wealth is a pretty reliable measure of men. He who by intelligence, enterprise, and persistence has won wealth—has become a capitalist and employer of many—is more than a match for his employees in any struggle other than physical. In such contests, when the element of brute force is eliminated, the workingman has no chance of success.

Besides, the workingmen are very apt to engage as their leader the noisy, ignorant, blatant demagogue, who in any game of diplomacy can be outwitted by a man of affairs. The only philosophical way to adjust disputes between capital and labor is to permit the laws of supply and demand to be operative.

Authorities for this chapter are official reports and contemporary publications.]

A Modern Ocean Steamship

THERE is no end to the plans which have been formulated for the benefit of workingmen. Many of these were wise, and gave hope that the disputes between capital and labor would disappear and everything would go forward in quiet and harmony, but the solution of the most perplexing of all social problems seems to be as far off as ever. Strikes continue, with the destruction of property, the paralysis of business, and often with violence and loss of life.

Of late years, despite the formation of laborers into unions, the employers have generally been victorious over the strikers, for the simple reason that men with plenty of money can afford to stay idle

longer than those having to depend upon their daily wages for food for themselves and families.

The great fact that gives capital the advantage is that labor is a drug in the market; there are more workers than there are places for workers; the supply is greater than the demand. The real difficulty, therefore, of this vexing problem is to change the relations of capital and labor, or, in other words, to create a demand for all the men that need employment.

Arbitration

The logical way of settling the quarrels between nations is by arbitration. The old method, when two powerful countries could not agree over some question, was to go to war. Thousands of lives would be lost and innumerable families be plunged into mourning, when, if the two warring peoples had agreed to leave the settlement of the dispute to some nation friendly to both, the decision would have been right, and all bloodshed saved. Several of the colonial wars ended without the slightest gain to either side, and the War of 1812, in which multitudes of lives were lost, millions of dollars' worth of property destroyed, and the capital of our country burned, came to an end without the settlement of the cause of the quarrel. This, of course, cannot be the case when the wrangle is left to arbitrators, and one of the most hopeful signs of the times is the growing favor among nations of that method of saving life and gaining the ends of justice.

It follows that arbitration is the true way of preventing the disastrous wrangles between employers and employees. When there are pleasant relations between the parties, and when each is anxious to maintain those relations, and they meet in that spirit to discuss their differences, they are quite sure to come to an agreement before they separate. If the employer is compelled to lower the wages of his men, he will give his reasons, and the intelligent employees will listen. If the employer has no good reason to give, and his cause is clearly wrong, the men will be sustained not only by their own unions, but by the public, if they strike.

Rights of Strikers

The right to strike is as clear as the right to breathe, but the wrong is committed when the strikers, as is nearly always the case, use violence to prevent others from taking their places. Not only that, but they pillage and destroy property, and some of the desperate persons among them (quite often criminals who are the worst enemies of the strikers) commit atrocious misdeeds. Then follow a

call upon the military, a fight with the vicious mob, and such scenes as have already been described in the account of the great railway strike of 1877.

It sometimes happens—as in the Pullman Car difficulties of 1894—that the employers insist that there is no question to arbitrate, and will not listen to the proposal to do so. This is clearly their right, and when the men who have gone out destroy the property of their late employers, all the damage must be paid for by the community which failed to prevent the destruction. If the strikers use violence towards the new men, the officers of the law must give the fullest protection to the new employees. If they are not strong enough, then the militia are called upon. It frequently happens that the militia are in sympathy with the strikers and are therefore useless. In that event, the regular army is in reserve. These men always obey orders, and shoot to kill. No mob receives any mercy at their hands, and against the Federal soldiers no unlawful combination can prevail.

Rights of Employers

One momentous truth should be borne in mind. A powerful mob may defy the authorities for a time; it may hold an entire city at its mercy. Suppose it gains a hundred thousand friends; suppose these swell to a million, and the revolt thus becomes far more formidable than it has ever been in the history of our country—what peril then threatens our Government?

Absolutely none at all, for back of the military and the regular army would rally ten millions of free men, who would grind the rioters to powder. The safety of our country lies in the fact that we are, have always been, and always will be a law-abiding people. We will not permit rioting and disregard of law. It is this stratum which underlies our whole social fabric that is built, not upon sand, but upon solid rock.

Hopelessness of any Revolt

One of the reassuring features of the strike of 1894 was the offer of a number of old Confederate leaders to place themselves at the head of their grizzled veterans and crush the rebellion in the bud.

Since the question of strikes is one that is certain to vex the country for years to come, it will be of interest to give in this place a history of the principal ones that have plagued the country during the past century.

The earliest strike of which there is any satisfactory record in this country was that of the boot and shoe makers of Philadelphia in

STRIKE OF THE SAILORS IN NEW YORK, 1803

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FROM THE ORIGINAL DRAWING BY CHARLES KENDRICK

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the year 1796. These men "turned out," as the saying then was, for an increase of wages. They won, and again struck in 1798 and 1799, carrying their point each time.

The first strike in New York of which record has been found is that of the sailors in 1803 for an increase of wages from $10 to $14 a month. The Jack Tars paraded around the water-front and compelled seamen from every ship in port that they could reach to join with them in their agitation. They became riotous, and the town guard turned out and repressed their disorder. The leader of this strike was convicted and sent to jail, and the strike was a signal failure. On November 1, 1805, the journeymen bootmakers of Philadelphia again struck, this time for an increase in their pay of from 25 to 75 cents on each pair of boots. The successful precedents set by their fellows some years before did not avail them, however: the strike was an egregious failure. Its organizers were found guilty of "conspiracy to raise wages," and were fined $8 and costs each. When the New York shoemakers turned out in 1809, 200 strong, they won their contention, but when the shoemakers in Pittsburg in 1815 followed their example they failed, and were convicted and fined.

Strike of the Sailors

As long ago as 1821 the printers struck in Albany against non-union workmen, but there are no data at hand now indicating the exact result of their protest. Next in chronological order came the strike of the spinning girls in the Cocheco Mills in Dover, N. H., in 1827. The carpenters and masons of Boston struck in 1830 for a ten-hour day, and failed. So the protest against non-union workingmen dates at least from 1821, and that for a ten-hour day at least from 1830.

In April, 1834, the laborers on the Providence Railroad struck at Mansfield, Mass., and became riotous. The Massachusetts militia was called out to suppress their disorder, and succeeded in so doing. In August, 1835, the operatives of twenty mills in Paterson, N. J., struck for shorter hours of work. This seems to have been a determined struggle, but the strikers lost their points of contention and $24,000 in wages besides. The ten-hour-day agitation was continued by the coal-handlers of Philadelphia in May, 1835, though without decisive result, while the same year the journeymen shoemakers again struck for shorter hours and more pay, and again carried their point. Next in order came the dam-builders in Maine in July,

Early Strikes

1836, with their successful contention for the right to smoke at work; and of the fifteen strikes between that year and 1842, so meagre are the statistics, it is apparent that barely ten were unsuccessful and three without positive advantage to either side.

Strike of Iron-makers

The first strike of the ironmakers of Pittsburg of which there seems to be record is that of February 5, 1842. They demanded a fixed wage scale, and lost five months' wages and the strike. In August of the same year the weavers of Philadelphia struck for more wages, and were as disorderly in their way, it seems, as the tailors of Tooley Street. They raised a great deal of row, and their disorders were not quieted until January, 1843, when there was a settlement in the nature of a compromise. The strike of the brickmakers in May, 1843, was attended by rioting and considerable destruction of property, but there was no decided advantage to either party to the contest. In May, 1845, the ironworkers of Pittsburg struck again, this time for $6 instead of $5 a ton, and this time they were successful. Philadelphia, being the great manufacturing city of the United States in the earlier part of this century, was the scene of the most strikes, and from 1844 to 1848, inclusive, there were a number of such agitations in that city, the results of which were in the main in accordance with the wishes of the workingmen.

The first great strike of the weavers of Fall River seems to have been in 1848, when there was a protracted effort to adjust their differences, which was, however, attended with more loss to the strikers than to their bosses, since the former lost $11,000 and the latter only $8,000. There was a great strike in the iron industries in Pittsburg, beginning in December, 1849. It lasted well into the new year, and was distinguished by more than usual bloodshed and disturbance. On February 18th the strikers began to riot, and from that time on non-union men were badly beaten whenever the opportunity offered. The wives and daughters of the strikers joined in their riots, and, as was said to be the case at Homestead, were not slow in using sticks and stones on the men who, they conceived, were robbing them of their bread and butter. There were a great many arrests of strikers, and the fines imposed were heavy. They lost everything they contended for, and the manufacturers signalized their victory by reducing the wages of the men from $6 to $4.50 a ton. In the ten years from 1850 to 1860 there were a number of strikes of minor importance, nearly all of which are said by the

Violence of Strikers

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collectors of the few statistics available to have been "unsuccessful."

On February 22, 1850, the Massachusetts shoemakers struck in a number of towns in that State, and there was great disorder. The State militia had to be called out to quell the riots, and when the strikers returned to work in April of that year it was estimated that they had lost $200,000.

Few Labor Disturbances During the War

The record of labor disturbances seems to have lapsed during the war. In 1868 the Fall River spinners and weavers struck against the January reduction in wages of 18 per cent. In two weeks it was said the men lost $50,000, but they were partially successful. In the years 1868 and 1869 there were seventeen big strikes, most of which failed, and the next to attract attention is the revolt of the iron-workers of Pittsburg on December 5, 1874, against what they said were unfair wages. By April 15th of the following year the men had gained their point, and an increase of wages was conceded to them.

The record of labor agitation having been brought down now to within a comparatively recent period, and the condition of mechanics and laborers generally in the United States having been undoubtedly greatly improved in that time, this ever-recurring question asserts itself: Is that improvement commensurate with the value of the lives, property, and money lost in the struggle to attain it?

In the years from 1871 to 1875 the union cigarmakers struck 78 times, and from 1873 to 1875 there were strikes all over the country in the cotton and wool and mining trades, mostly unsuccessful. Then came the railway strike of 1877, the most serious up to that time in the history of the country, the particulars of which have been told elsewhere.

The Strikes of 1880

In 1880 the Tenth Census report said that 762 strikes occurred that year. In 1886, for by this time statistics on this subject had begun to be collected with considerable accuracy, there were 1,900 strikes and a resulting loss of more than $2,858,191 in wages. The great Wabash Railroad strike, as a result of which it was believed General Manager Talmage lost his life, being a nervous man and subjected at the time to threats of much brutality, began in 1885. The year 1886 saw the famous Gould strike on the Southwestern Railroad system. The receivers of the Texas and Pacific Railroad discharged a man named Hall, who was a Knight of Labor. In

consequence of this action all the Knights of Labor employed on the Texas and Pacific and Missouri Pacific railway systems struck work on March 1, 1886. The terrific conditions of 1877 were re-created on a larger scale. The strikers absolutely seized the cities of St. Louis, Sedalia, Atchison, Kansas City, Parsons, Fort Worth, Little Rock, and Texarkana, and stopped all trains. There was a special committee of the House of Representatives on labor troubles appointed to consider this subject, and it examined Jay Gould in Washington in April, 1886. Much interest was manifested in Mr. Gould's appearance as a witness before this committee. He bore himself with consummate prudence, and made a strong impression. He testified that General Master Workman Powderly, of the Knights of Labor, had told him on March 28th of that year, when the strike was less than a month old, that that strike was against the rules of the Knights of Labor. There was indeed a general impression in the minds of the public that Powderly condemned the undertaking of this strike by the Knights of Labor from the very beginning, for when he issued his general appeal to Knights of Labor, "wherever found," to help the strikers, "whether right or wrong," and denouncing General Manager Hoxey because he would not treat with the Knights of Labor, the qualifications which he added to his appeal were construed as a confession. The date of his appeal was April 14, 1886. As a result of this strike, the railroad men lost millions of dollars in wages—some put the sum at $15,000,000—and lost the strike as well. General Manager Hoxey lost his life, dying in New York in consequence of the nervous strain to which he was subjected.

A Formidable Strike

As an illustration of how strikes originate, the St. Louis *Globe-Democrat* said at that time: "The present strike on the Southwestern system originated, as is well known, in the discharge of a man of the name of Hall at Marshall, Tex. Strange to say, about ten days before this strike was ordered, a general strike was threatened because of a refusal of the company to discharge a man. Martin Irons, Chairman of the Executive Committee of the Knights at Sedalia, notified the superintendent of the railroad system at that place that if a certain master-mechanic was not discharged within forty-eight hours a strike would be ordered on the entire Missouri Pacific system. The strike was averted only by the voluntary resignation of the man who had incurred the wrath of the committee. He

How Some Strikes Originate

was a good mechanic, well fitted for his place, and a favorite with the officers of the road."

The coal and freight handlers' strike in New York City began in 1886 and was not ended until the next year. Business was paralyzed and many millions of dollars were lost. It was stated that only twenty per cent. of the strikers were on the winning side in 1886. From other sources there is reason to believe that, while the successful strikers of 1886 lost $2,400,000 in wages, the unsuccessful strikers lost not less than $13,500,000 in wages. This is the result of labor agitation in a single year.

Great Losses by Strikers

The Government report for the year 1887 said that between 1796 and 1880 1,491 important strikes had occurred, but from 1881 to 1886 there had been 3,902 strikes, in which 1,323,203 men were involved and millions in wages lost.

Carroll D. Wright reported that for six years ending December 31, 1886, success had followed in 10,407 cases, or 46.59 per cent. of the whole. The causes of strikes as given by him were: For increase of wages, 42.44 per cent.; for reduction of hours, 19.45 per cent.; against reduction of wages, 7.75 per cent.; for increase of wages and reduction of hours, 7.53 per cent.; against increase of hours, 0.62 per cent.; all other causes, 22.17 per cent. While disclaiming absolute accuracy, as every collator and collector of such statistics must, Mr. Wright reported at that time that the loss to strikers during the six years covered by his investigations was $51,816,165, and loss to employees through lockouts for the same period $8,132,717, or a total wage loss to employees of $59,948,882.

The Reading Strike

The famous Reading strike, as it is called, began on the Philadelphia and Reading Railroad on December 20, 1887, when 6,000 employees of the railroad company were called away from their work by the Knights of Labor. The reason given for this action was in general the refusal of the railroad company to recognize the Knights of Labor as such. The facts were that a Port Richmond firm employed a few non-union men. Their discharge was insisted upon by the union men; and whereas only 6,000 men went out at first, 30,000 men altogether participated in the Reading strikes of that year, and the workmen lost in consequence $3,620,000 in wages. The loss of the Reading Railroad Company was put at $1,000,000, and the loss to consumers of coal in consequence of the increase they were compelled to pay in prices was set down at $700,000. The places of

most of the men who went out on this strike were filled by the railroad company, which never conceded the point for which the Knights of Labor contended; and as long afterwards as June 9, 1888, several thousands of the misguided strikers were still idle, suffering great privations and bitterly regretting the day they struck. General Master Workman Powderly himself said of this strike and of the overbearing disposition the men had previously shown towards the

STREET-CAR STRIKE IN NEW YORK, 1889

railroad company: "The men on the Reading Railroad actually controlled the entire management and had everything their own way. They grew restive and allowed incendiary counsels to prevail. It was no uncommon thing for them to stop a train on the down track and talk to an up train in order to settle some little matter."

Estimate of Strikers' Losses

Another estimate of the losses incurred by strikes during the six years from 1880 to 1886 on American railroads may be interesting for purposes of comparison. It was made in the Philadelphia *Press*, and declared that in that time there had been on American railroads 1,478 strikes, with an average loss of 38,127 days of labor. The

pecuniary loss to employees was $2,089,494, while that to employers was $6,267,558.

The glass-workers struck in Philadelphia, Pittsburg, and other places in 1887, losing $495,264 in wages. Out of 884 strikes in 1887, 247 were successful, while 115 more were compromised on terms giving some advantage to the workmen.

Successes and Failures

The workers in the Edgar Thompson Steel Works presented their wage scale to their employers on December 29, 1887. The next day Andrew Carnegie refused to sign the scale. A strike was shortly begun, after a conference in New York productive of no results, and 3,000 men, being without work for four months, lost $560,000 in wages.

The strike of the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers on the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy Railroad and its branches began early in 1888. On May 5th of that year the *Tribune* estimated the cost of the strike up to that time at $3,000,000. The loss of the Brotherhood was then estimated at $670,034, of which $410,572 was wages. This sum had been lost by the 1,053 engineers, 1,053 firemen, and 400 switchmen who had gone out. It is said that the losses of the railroad company did not amount to more than one-tenth of the losses of the men. Few of these strikers were re-employed, and in consequence of the assessments levied at the time there were such disturbances in the Brotherhood that a shortage of $3,000 developed in Division 145. Another estimate of the losses occasioned by this strike was $5,000,000 to the railroad company and $1,000,000 to the strikers; conflicts of figures such as these must be supposed to be largely due to the difference in the point of view. A hostility which has since continued between the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers and the Knights of Labor developed itself in the course of this strike, in consequence of the Knights of Labor taking the place of the striking Brotherhood engineers at that time. When the Knights of Labor struck on the Lehigh Valley Railroad in November, 1893, it was feared that the Brotherhood men would retaliate by taking the places of the Knights.

The Locomotive Brotherhood

All New Yorkers remember the street-car strike in the metropolis in January, 1889. The conductors and drivers on nearly all the surface lines quit work, and in consequence, on January 29, 1,200 street cars, each earning on an average about $20 a day for its owners, were taken off. The men on the Third Avenue surface road did not

strike, and after a week of general public discomfort and private suffering their striking brethren were sorry they had not followed the Third Avenue men's example. It was estimated that about 6,000 men went out, asking for more money and shorter hours. When they gave in, in about seven days, they had lost about $300,000. The strike was officially wound up on February 6, 1889, and the strikers hurried back to get their old places, many of which, however, had been filled in their absence. The total loss occasioned by this strike was estimated at $1,707,000 The wages lost during the tie-up itself by the strikers were said to foot up $50,400. Weeks passed, and the suffering among these men increased, and as late as March 9, 3,000 of them were said to be still lacking employment. There were a number of riotous assemblages in the streets, and one striker, by name McGowan, was killed by a shot from Policeman Snyder's pistol.

Street Car Strike in New York

The long strike of the Feather-Workers' Union in New York city collapsed on March 21, 1889, the strikers failing to gain their point, and renouncing their unions in many cases to secure re-employment. About $5,000 had been paid out in support of the union.

In June, 1889, the glassblowers of New Jersey struck by order of the Knights of Labor. There was the usual dreary struggle, and on January 23, 1890, there was a settlement said to be agreeable to both sides. At this time, however, seven of the large firms which had employed the strikers were employing non-union men and refused to discharge them.

At half-past seven in the evening of August 8, 1890, the strike of the operatives of the New York Central Railroad Company began with the blockading of trains in its tunnel above the Grand Central Station. It was a question of the recognition of the Knights of Labor. The men put forward as a grievance the fact that the railroad company had for some months been discharging Knights of Labor, not alleging that membership as a complaint, but uniformly finding itself able to dispense with the services of men who were Knights. The Knights still in its service formally asked that their discharged brethren be reinstated, and this request was refused. The railroad company refused to treat with the Knights as such, and Vice-President Webb announced that the company would fight to the end rather than give in. Eight thousand Knights of Labor then went out. There were riots at various points on the road, at

Strike on the N. Y. Central

DeWitt and at Albany in particular, and a number of people were injured in a conflict between the Pinkertons and the strikers. The entire system of the road was affected, and it was declared that "the entire resources of the Knights were to be drawn on." The Brotherhood men on the Hudson division of the Central also struck on August 10th, although it was claimed for the company that 300 of the men had returned to work on the railroad on August 9th. Vice-President Webb rejected the offers of the State Arbitration Board to intervene, and carried his policy through to a successful issue. On August 12th the strike was practically at an end, the railroad company said, and when on August 25th the Supreme Council of the United Orders of Railroad Employees refused to strike, the Knights were inevitably done for. On September 4th three strikers tried to wreck the Montreal express. The loss to the strikers and to the Knights of Labor was very great and far-reaching, as many of the best men in the employment of the company found it difficult to get work of any kind thereafter. The sympathetic strike on the Delaware and Hudson road had collapsed in thirty-six hours.

Failure of the Strike

Earlier in the same year a chronic disaffection of the tailors in the east side of New York city broke out suddenly, on March 30th, in an outrage which excited the indignation of the entire city, when a tailor named Harris Melzer, who did not strike, had a leather belt forced into his groin by strangers who were said to be strikers, and was left helpless and in the most horrible agony in the street. In June, 1890, the cloakmakers struck in New York city, and non-union men were employed in their places. On July 12th more than 1,000 clothing cutters were notified that they need not come back to work unless they would agree to adjure their unions. Joseph Barondess, a young man of great force of character, who displayed good qualities of leadership, took charge of this strike on behalf of the workmen, and settled it with considerable success on July 25th of that year, the Manufacturers' Association having surrendered on most points. On July 24th there had been such threats of bloodshed that Inspector Byrnes was called upon to interfere. On August 7, 1890, 3,000 cloakmakers struck under Barondess for an increase of pay. In June, July, August, and September, 1890, the cigarmakers struck repeatedly in New York city, and generally won their case.

Strike of the Cloakmakers and Tailors

The first of the recent builders' strikes began on June 5, 1890, when the Board of Walking Delegates in New York ordered all wor-

stopped on buildings to which Peck, Martin & Co. were furnishing materials. On that call 1,000 men went out, and at various times in the next year or two there was a continuance of this agitation in the building trades, the employers finally, it is thought, getting the best of the struggle.

A Year of Labor Disturbances

The eight-hour agitation was publicly begun on the last of May, 1890, which, taking it all in all, was a year characterized by very general and widespread labor disturbances. The strike of the Pittsburg puddlers cost them more than $170,000 in wages. The strike of the Turtle Creek miners cost them $189,000. Twenty-six thousand men struck in Chicago early in the year for an eight-hour working day; 2,000 builders struck in Boston, and in Indianapolis 2,000 mill-hands struck.

In Binghamton, in June, 1890, there was a very interesting strike of 1,600 boys and girls employed in the cigar factories. They asked an increase of wages. They made a bitter fight for what they deemed their rights, and were treated with much severity, it was contended, by the officers of the law. Up to October 3d of that year sixty-two of the strikers had been arrested, "picketing" became a crime, and civil suits for damages were brought against forty leaders of the strikers and against the managers of the Binghamton *Leader*, a newspaper which had given the strikers much encouragement. The tremendous strike of the dock laborers and sailors in Australia began on September 1st of that year, 100,000 of them going out, and completely blocking the traffic in that part of the world. It cannot be an exaggeration to say that the strikers of that year, 1890, lost many millions of dollars in wages. On September 16, 1890, 200 members of the National Gold and Silver Beaters' Union struck for an increase of wages, in New York, and there were similar strikes in Boston, Philadelphia, and Chicago, all successful.

In 1890 the Connellsville coke strikes attracted general attention, and in the disturbances which ensued a dozen or more lives were lost. The strikers were defeated at all points, losing their homes, their cause, and $500,000 in wages.

Another Strike by Cloakmakers and Tailors

In February, 1891, the troubles of the union cloakmakers and tailors broke out afresh in New York city, and strikers from these unions were accused of having invaded the home of a contractor in Jamaica, L. I., of wrecking his shop, and of throwing vitriol on a child.

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The town of Kearny, N. J., which practically grew up around the great Clark thread mills, was in 1891 the scene of a strike which entailed much suffering upon the employees. In 1873 William Clark had come from Scotland to Kearny and founded the thread mills, to which in 1886 he imported a man named Walmesley as superintendent. In the ensuing years the hands struck three times against what they said was Mr. Walmesley's offensive treatment of them, but lost in each case. In December, 1890, they went out again, because he refused to take back some men they said he had unjustly discharged. By March 1, 1891, their strike was at an end, the employees still refusing to go back, and the mills having been filled with non-union hands.

Strike at Kearny

One of the mills belonging to the Carnegie Steel Company is on the Monongahela River, at Homestead, Pa., a few miles from Pittsburg. In 1889, a sliding scale of wages was adopted, by which the pay of the workmen was increased or diminished in accordance with the variation in prices. The agreement, however, was that $25 per ton should be the lowest wages paid for what is known as 4x4 Bessemer steel billets.

This contract ended in June, 1892, and the company notified their workmen that the minimum or lowest price thereafter would be $22. They gave as a reason for the change that the improvements in the machinery enabled the men to earn a larger amount of money than before by the same labor. The company insisted further that December 31st, instead of June 30th, should be the date for the termination of the contract fixing the annual wages.

The men refused to accept the agreement, and were sustained by the Amalgamated Association of Steel and Iron Workers. They denied that the increased output made necessary the reduction, and regarded the change of time named as caused by the fact that in mid-winter they were not in so good situation to resist a scaling-down of wages as in summer. They demanded the continuance, therefore, of the old agreement. Mr. H. C. Frick, the chairman of the company, raised the minimum to $23, and the men came down to $24. Beyond that neither would go.

Strike at the Carnegie Works

Mr. Frick finally announced that if the men did not accept his terms by June 24th, the company would no longer deal with the union. The workmen held out, and on the 1st of July the lockout began.

THE BATTLE AT HOMESTEAD, PA., JULY, 1892

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FROM THE ORIGINAL DRAWING BY H. A. OGDEN

The company determined to keep their works going with the help of non-union men, and were prepared to hire armed watchmen to protect their property should it become necessary. Neither side would yield a point, and unfortunately, that great remedy under such strained circumstances—arbitration—was not considered by any concerned.

Employment of Pinkerton Detectives

The excitement and turbulence increased until the sheriff of Allegheny County was unable to control the mob. In the mean time, the company hired some 270 men of the Pinkerton Detective Agency of Chicago to guard the mill. This was a dangerous step, in the inflamed state of the community. Well aware of what was likely to follow, the attempt was made to convey the men to the mill secretly at night by way of the river from Pittsburg. But the approach of the detectives was signalled to the suspicious employees, and, filled with anger and resentment, they awaited the coming of the hired guards.

The barges with the Pinkerton men on board reached Homestead about four o'clock on the morning of Wednesday, July 6th. A short parley was held with the hundreds of angry workmen on the bank. While it was going on, some one (it is uncertain from which side) fired a shot. This precipitated a fierce fight. The barges drew off and soon repeated the attempt to land, but failed again, whereupon they anchored in mid-stream.

Irregular firing was kept up through the day. The workmen used a cannon and made a fort of steel bars. It is not known of a certainty how many fell on both sides. The officers were armed with Winchester rifles and killed about eleven workmen and wounded eighteen. The cannon on the shore was charged with slugs and scrap-iron, while some of the workmen had firearms. They killed six detectives and wounded at least twenty.

Surrender of the Officers

The situation of the officers on the barges finally became so desperate in the face of the infuriated mob surrounding them, that at about five o'clock in the afternoon they surrendered and were disarmed. The leading strikers assured them of safety, but when the Pinkerton men came ashore the fury of the mob could not be restrained. They repeatedly assaulted the men on their way to jail, fully 100 being seriously injured. The jail was unable to hold all the prisoners, who were soon taken to Pittsburg. This left the strikers masters of the situation for the time.

The sheriff now appealed to Governor Pattison for military aid. He declined to give it until assured that every other resource was exhausted. The sheriff tried to organize a posse, but was obliged to notify the governor that it was impossible, and the county authorities could not preserve the peace nor restore the mill to its owners. Then the governor, on July 10th, ordered out all the military forces of the State, some 8,000 men, under Major-General G. R. Snowden. Two days later the troops quietly occupied the town. No outbreak occurred, for the presence of the military overawed the strikers, but the situation was critical. The baffled workmen were watchful, angered, revengeful, and "bided their time."

State Aid

The Carnegie Company posted notices that unless the employees returned to work, their places would be filled by non-union men. Warrants were issued for the arrest of the leaders of the strike, Hugh O'Donnell, Hugh Ross, Burgess McLuckie, and others, on the charge of murder in the killing of the Pinkerton men on July 6th. All of the arrested parties were released on bail.

The lamentable events at Homestead attracted the attention of Congress, which appointed a committee of the House, three Democrats and two Republicans, with instructions to investigate and report upon the causes of the trouble and the workings of the Pinkerton system.

The excitement, which had subsided to a great extent, flamed up again on the 23d of July, through the attempted assassination of Mr. Frick. A Russian Hebrew anarchist, named Berkman, gained entrance to the office of Mr. Frick under the pretence of being connected with "The New York Employment Agency," and fired three shots at him, two of which took effect. Mr. Frick grappled with his assailant, and was assisted by Vice-Chairman Leischman, who happened to be in his office. A violent struggle followed, during which Mr. Frick was stabbed seven times with a dirk knife. With the aid of the clerks, who rushed in, the assassin was finally overpowered and taken to the police station.

Attempt to Assassinate Mr. Frick

In the Criminal Court at Pittsburg, September 19th, the jury, without leaving their seats, convicted Berkman, who was sentenced to twenty-two years in the penitentiary. The act of this miscreant was condemned by the workingmen generally, even in Homestead, where so many were bitterly opposed to Mr. Frick. Though the man had accomplices in New York, his crime was not the outcome

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of any wide conspiracy. Mr. Frick's wounds proved less severe than was supposed, and he was at work in his office again the following month.

The company carried out their threat of employing non-union men. There had been 3,800 employees in the Homestead mill, of whom 1,200 were replaced by the 1st of August, with more continually coming, mainly from the East. Matters were so tranquil that most of the troops were withdrawn.

Withdrawal of the Troops

There were no signs of yielding, however, on the part of the strikers. At an immense meeting of the Amalgamated Association, August 2d, it was resolved to continue the struggle. Contributions had been sent in and were still coming from sympathizers in all parts of the country. Several sympathetic strikes took place in the other Carnegie mills, the most important of which were those at the Union Mills in Pittsburg and the Duquesne and Beaver Falls mills. The Duquesne strikers, however, soon went back to work, convinced that the fight was hopeless.

By the 1st of October the mills were running in charge of non-union men. Matters seemed so tranquil that on the 13th of that month the last of the troops, after ninety-five days' service, were withdrawn from Homestead.

With their departure, however, disorder broke out again. Conflicts between the new and old workmen were frequent, though not of a serious nature. The bitterness of feeling was mainly due to the fact, evident to all by this time, that the employers had become masters of the situation.

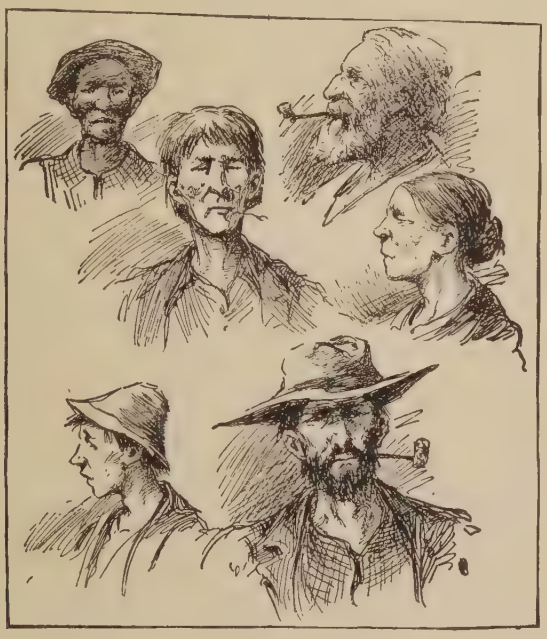
Collapse of the Strike

The fatal blow to the strike came November 20th, when the Amalgamated Association, by a vote of 101 to 91, officially declared the strike at an end. The direct cause of this break was the act of 300 mechanics and day laborers, who, three days before, went to the mills, asked for work, and were given places. With the official declaration that the strike was off, a general rush was made for the company's office by the men who had been idle for five months. The company found places for the majority, but treated with them as individuals, requiring each to sign a pledge that he would not belong to any labor organization, and would submit to the rules and regulations of the company. The leaders of the strike, who were on the "black list," were refused employment.

Now as to the cost of the Homestead strike: The strikers lost at

least $2,000,000 and the company double that amount. The expense of the state troops was some $500,000. To this total must be added the cost to Allegheny County in the murder, treason, riot, and other cases resulting from the disturbance. More lamentable than all were the two-score deaths due to the same cause.

The mining district of Cœur d'Alene is in Shoshone County, Idaho. The twelve mines where the trouble occurred are about



TYPES OF STRIKERS

eighty miles from Spokane. The vast value of these mines will be understood when it is stated that their output was from 100 to 400 tons of ore a day, and that the total yield was one-eighth of the silver and lead consumption of the United States. The annual product is estimated to be $8,000,000.

Lockout at Cœur d'Alene

A regulation put in force in the spring of 1892 made the wages of unskilled laborers, such as shovellers and carmen, $3.00 per day, that of the skilled laborers remaining as before, namely, $3.50 per day. The Miners' Union demanded the latter price for all laborers. The company refused, and a lockout, involving 3,000 miners, began April 1st.

As at Homestead afterwards, the company imported non-union men to take the places of the strikers, and with the inevitable result. The crisis was brought about by the United States courts at Boisé City when they issued a perpetual injunction against the Miners' Union, restraining it from acts of violence. The governor of Idaho, appreciating the gravity of the situation, and feeling himself unable to meet it, applied to President Harrison to send troops to prevent any outbreak. A President is always reluctant to take such a step, and he declined for the time to do so.

Violence by Strikers

The non-union men at work in the mines were attacked on July 11th by a large force of union miners. They resisted bravely, but after several of their number had been killed were obliged to surrender. A few days later a car loaded with dynamite was run into the concentrating works of the Frisco mine, which were utterly wrecked by the explosion.

Emboldened by their success, the miners rose in arms throughout the whole region, and, marching from mine to mine, compelled the non-union men to surrender, and forced their employers to send them away.

The governor called out the State militia, but only 200 were available, and they of course were powerless. President Harrison was again appealed to, and he issued orders for the United States troops at Forts Sherman, Walla-Walla, Vancouver, Spokane, Missoula, and Keogh, numbering some 2,000 men, to go to the scene of disturbance. Martial law was declared throughout the district.

General W. P. Carlin, of Fort Sherman, occupied Wardner, July 14th, without resistance, and placed forces at the other mining towns. Between 300 and 400 rioters were arrested and turned over to the civil authorities at Boisé City, the rest fleeing to the mountains. This vigorous action brought back order, and on July 23d most of the soldiers were ordered home. Martial law was suspended on November 16th.

Strike at Buffalo

Grand Master Sweeney, of the Switchmen's Union, ordered out the switchmen, August 14, 1892, at the yards of the Erie, Lehigh Valley, and Buffalo Creek railroads at Buffalo, N. Y. His action was based upon the refusal of the roads to grant an advance in wages which would raise the pay of the switchmen on roads running east of Buffalo so as to equal that received on the western lines. The Delaware, Lackawanna, and Western was the only road that acceded to the demand of the strikers.

The other companies immediately filled the places of the strikers with non-union men, whereupon the strikers resorted to violence. A large number of freight cars loaded with merchandise, two passenger cars, and other property were set on fire and destroyed. Trains were derailed, an engine and water-tank wrecked, and the non-union men repeatedly assaulted. These lawless acts were disavowed by the Switchmen's Union, and declared to be the work of desperate men having no affiliation with the strikers.

Weakness of the Authorities

The sheriff's posse, numbering less than 50 men, were disarmed by the strikers, and the 200 special policemen sworn in could do nothing beyond the city limits. As a result, traffic was blocked, and little work was done at the yards.

The situation became so grave that on Monday, August 15th, General Doyle ordered out the Sixty-fifth and Seventy-fourth regiments of the National Guard. Still the strike spread, taking in the switchmen of the Lake Shore road. The strikers continued violent, and the sheriff and mayor of Buffalo appealed to Governor Flower to call out the entire militia of the State. The following day the governor ordered several regiments from New York, Brooklyn, and other places, and notified the rest to hold themselves in reserve.

This act of the governor concentrated some 8,000 troops in Buffalo, where their presence overawed the strikers. Violence ceased, but the switchmen would not yield, and the strike extended to the Nickel Plate, the Buffalo, Rochester, and Pittsburg, and the Delaware, Lackawanna, and Western roads. By the latter part of August the only road in Buffalo not involved was the Grand Trunk and Michigan Central. Despite all this, however, and the fact that the number of strikers was nearly 700, it became evident that failure was before them. Their places were rapidly filled, and the new men were protected at their work. With a view of adding strength to his position, Mr. Sweeney called together the officials of the Engineers', Conductors', Firemen's, and Trainmen's Unions, but they declined the risk of a sympathetic strike. This refusal brought about the collapse of the strike, which Mr. Sweeney declared off at midnight, August 24th.

Failure of the Strikers

There had been trouble for a long time in Tennessee because of the Convict Labor Law, as it is called. A crisis was reached as long ago as July 14, 1891. The Briceville mines belong to the Tennessee Coal-Mining Company of Knoxville, who leased convicts to

work them. Forty other convicts were set to work making barracks for those employed in the mines. On the night of July 14th, 300 miners surrounded the convict camp, and told the guard that their labor would not be permitted in that part of the State. Furthermore, they informed the convicts that they were at liberty to go whither they chose. Only two of the prisoners accepted the boon of freedom thus offered.

Governor Buchanan, being appealed to by the superintendent of state prisons, called out a part of the state militia, and another body

CAMP SCENE UNDER LEHIGH VALLEY RAILROAD COAL TRESTLE

of convicts under the escort of about 100 troops were sent to the mines. The miners, to the number of 1,000, armed themselves, marched into Briceville, surrounded the militia, and summoned them to surrender. Seeing his hopeless situation, the commander of the militia agreed to take the convicts back to Knoxville, and did so.

Labor Troubles in Tennessee

The strong force of miners now marched to the mines of the Knoxville Iron Company and forced the guards there to send away the 125 convicts. Ten more companies of troops were hurried to the scene of trouble. They included artillery armed with Gatling guns. A deadly collision looked inevitable.

Considerable sympathy was felt for the strikers. During all the excitement only about a half-dozen convicts escaped. The miners were orderly, but declared that as soon as the troops were with-

drawn they would liberate the convicts, whose employment they conceived to be a great injustice to free labor. They appointed a committee of five to go to Nashville and Knoxville to confer with the governor and mine owners in the hope of reaching a compromise. The strikers further pledged themselves not to injure a dollar's worth of property, and that no violence should be offered any one except in self-defence.

The governor met the committee, July 22d, and told them he would call an extra session of the Legislature and recommend that the con-

CHARGING THE STRIKERS

vict system be amended if not repealed. Meanwhile, the convicts must be returned to the mines, and the troops would be withdrawn upon the promise of the miners not to molest them. The latter, after fully considering the matter, gave the required pledge.

Legislative Action

The Legislature convened in extra session, August 17th. A heated discussion followed, but a decision was finally reached that that body could not abrogate or amend the existing contract with the prison lessees. On September 15th, the bill abolishing the convict lease system was defeated. This placed affairs where they were were before the trouble.

The miners had had their hopes raised, only to have them dashed to the ground again. They felt, as has been stated, that the em-

ployment of convicts in the mine was a great injustice, and thousands of people throughout the State sympathized with them. The disaffected now resorted to violence.

With their numbers greatly increased, they broke out in open revolt in October. At Coal Creek, Briceville, and Oliver Springs the convicts, numbering about 400, mostly colored men, were released. At Oliver Springs, on November 1st, the 160 convicts were set free, the prison was burned, and $15,000 worth of the company's property destroyed.

Release of Convicts

Governor Buchanan issued two proclamations. The first offered

DIGGING TRENCHES

a reward of $5,000 for the arrest and conviction of the leader or leaders in the convict releases, and $250 additional for the conviction of each participant in the riots. The second proclamation promised $25 for the capture of each released convict. Nearly everybody knew who were the leaders of the revolt, but no attempt was made to arrest them, for it was impossible to secure the evidence with which to convict. Most of the convicts were recaptured in the course of a few weeks, the cost to the State being about $10,000.

State Action

The quiet, which lasted for a time, was broken by a disturbance in the latter part of November of another nature. The Cumberland Company offered employment to free laborers without regard to color.

A number of blacks took advantage of the offer, but their houses were attacked by an armed mob, and most of the occupants fled in terror.

Governor Buchanan and a majority of the citizens of Tennessee were opposed to the convict system, so that in one sense the stand taken by the miners was that of the State itself, though public sentiment condemned the deeds of violence already described, and those that followed.

Daring Acts of the Strikers

On August 13, 1892, 400 miners burned the stockade at Tracy City, and then, marching to the mines, ordered out the 25 guards and 390 prisoners, who were placed on a train and sent to Nashville. On the road the convicts cut the train and some of them escaped. They were fired upon by the guards, who killed one and wounded another. The following day a train with reinforcements for the stockade at Inman was compelled to turn back. The next morning the 65 guards and 300 convicts at Inman were made prisoners and sent to join the others at Nashville. Troops on their way from Chattanooga and Knoxville to the aid of the sheriff were stopped. On August 16th, a force of miners, numbering nearly 2,000, compelled the weak guard at Oliver Springs to surrender. Then they and the 92 convicts were marched out and despatched to Knoxville by way of Cincinnati.

There was one man who, amid this confusion, weakness, and timidity, thrilled the State by his heroism. He was Colonel Kellar Anderson, who with 150 state troops made his way to Coal Creek, one of the points of disturbance. The wires communicating with him were cut, and there was a general fear that he and his command had been massacred, for the fierce miners were rapidly gathering from all quarters, and it was known that he and his little company were surrounded.

Valor of Col. Anderson

On August 18th the large force attacked Colonel Anderson's position, but were received with so deadly a fire that a number were killed and the rest put to flight. Rallying, the miners charged again, and were not only repulsed, but lost a squad of their men, who were taken prisoners by Colonel Anderson. Then a third assault was made, only to be repelled as before.

This treatment was so unexpected to the assailants that they abandoned the attack and displayed a flag of truce. Colonel Anderson was asked to go unarmed under its protection, with the prisoners,

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to the railway station and address the people, urging their obedience to the law. He agreed to do so, but was betrayed. As soon as he placed himself within reach of the miners he was made prisoner, and threatened with death if he refused to send an order to the garrison to surrender. Colonel Anderson in vigorous language expressed his opinion of his treacherous captors and defied them. They threatened several times to lynch him, and he believed his death was a matter of only a few hours, but he remained as firm as a rock, and dared them to do their worst.

A Treacherous Capture

Meanwhile, hoping that with the leader in their hands they could crush the militia, the miners made two more attacks, but were repelled by the troops under Lieutenant Fyffe.

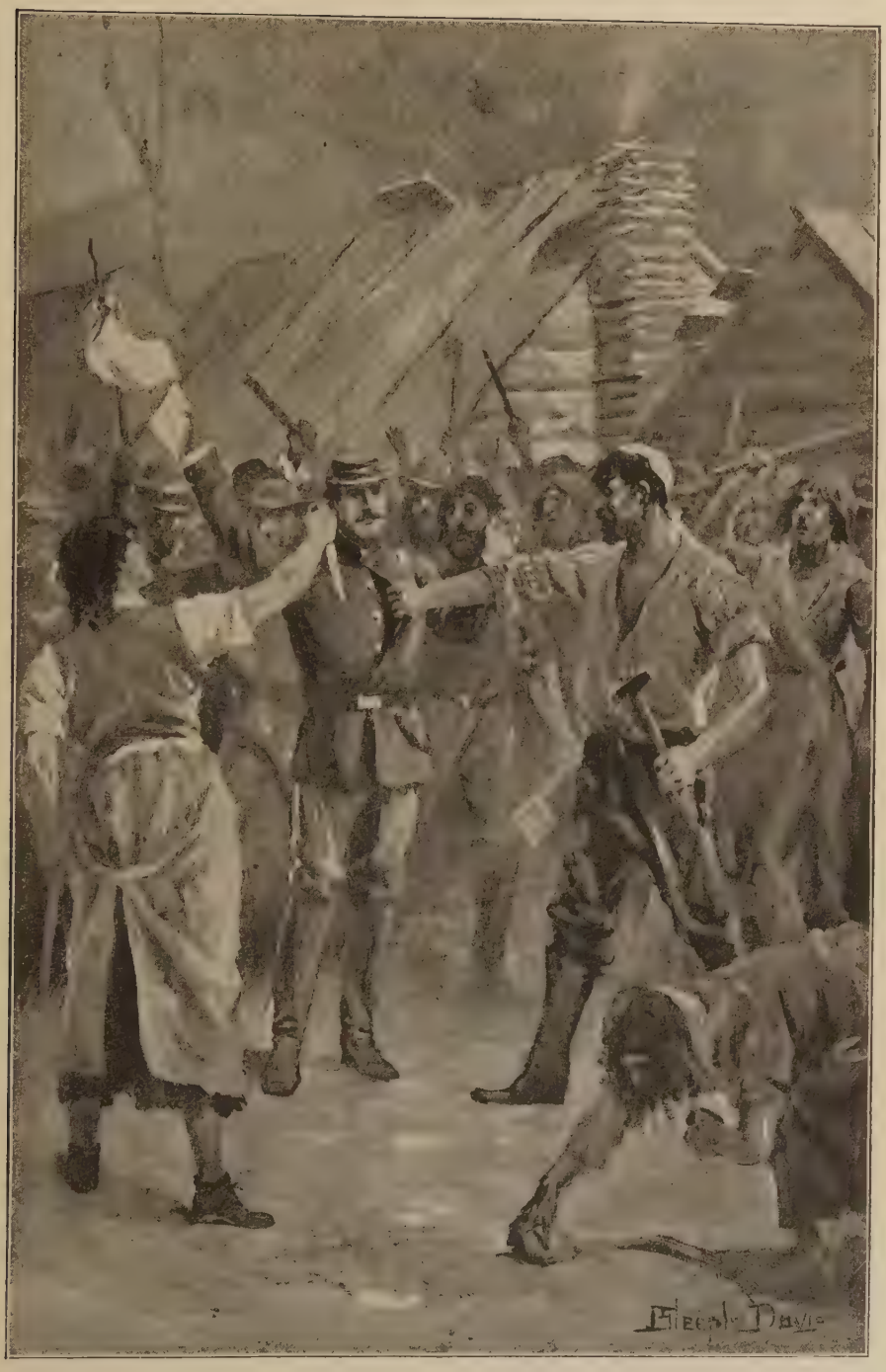
Brigadier-General S. T. Carnes concentrated the National Guard at Knoxville and moved towards Coal Creek. Leaving the railway some miles distant, so as to avoid the dynamite-mines there was reason to believe were laid, he advanced upon the village, only to find that most of the malcontents had taken to the hills.

The first thing done by General Carnes was to seize more than a hundred miners as hostages and demand the immediate release of Colonel Anderson. He was set free at once. A body of volunteers under Major D. A. Carpenter on their way to Coal Creek from another direction were ambushed by the miners, lost three killed and several wounded, and were driven back to Offuts, where they learned that the garrison at Coal Creek had been relieved by General Carnes.

Order was now soon restored. Many of the miners engaged in the disturbances fled into West Virginia and Kentucky, and the convicts were returned to the mines and set to work under military protection. This was the only possible way of working them, and even that has since been attended with occasional outbreaks.

Building Strikes in New York

The series of strikes ordered by the Board of Walking Delegates in New York against the Building Material Dealers' Association resulted in the defeat of the men, who scrambled for their old places on August 9, 1892. This strike began on the new Criminal Court building in Centre Street in May. The grievance was the fact that one Paul Chandler, an engineer employed by the Jackson Architectural Iron Company, had refused to pay a fine of $50 imposed on him by the union, and in spite of this stigma was at work on the building. District Association 253 of the Knights of Labor took up the fight, and the bricklayers and allied trades who refused to



A HERO OF THE STRIKE

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FROM THE ORIGINAL PAINTING BY J. STEEPLE DAVIS

PERIOD VII — THE NEW UNITED STATES

strike were forced out. The men finally submitted without conditions, having lost $1,000,000.

In the spring of 1892 all the workingmen of New Orleans were organized into unions, and soon afterwards the street-car hands struck for higher wages, and won their strikes one after another. On November 3d a general strike of all trades was ordered, and only four out of 15,000 men refused to go out. The strike collapsed on November 11th, the men losing $500,000, their employers $750,000, and the city of New Orleans about $5,000,000.

Failures and Successes

The strike of the pavers in New York city in 1892 lasted for some fourteen weeks, the men finally returning to work on the original terms of their employment, after a loss, it was said, of $50,000.

The Carpenters' Union of New York won their strike against Contractor Downey on March 3, 1892. He was accused of employing cabinet-makers to do carpenter work at less wages than the Carpenters' Union demanded. The lockout of the New England Granite Syndicate in May, 1892, caused the idleness in New York, New Jersey, and New England of 70,000 men.

The interesting strikes in this country in the year 1893 were the famous Ann Arbor strike, in which the United States courts made such radical decisions, and those on the Lehigh Valley Railroad and in Danbury, Conn.

The Great English Coal Strike

The whole industrial world, of course, had its attention attracted to the great English coal strike, by which it was said the enormous sum of $150,000,000 had been lost. In Sheffield alone nine-tenths of the population had been forced into idleness by reason of the inability of their employers to get coal. This particular agitation was against a reduction of wages which the men feared was about to be made, and caused untold suffering all over the British Isles. It was successfully settled by Lord Rosebery on November 18, 1893, after a dinner party to which he had invited the leaders of both sides.

In June, 1893, eight or ten strikers who had quit work for a contractor on the drainage canal near Chicago were killed in a fight with workmen.

The strike on the Little Toledo, Ann Arbor, and North Michigan Railroad began in March, the Brotherhoods of Locomotive Engineers and of Locomotive Firemen being involved. Judges Taft and Ricks, of the United States Court, ordered Chief Arthur, of the former Brotherhood, to promulgate an order that the by-laws of the

GUN PRACTICE ON A NATIONAL WAR-SHIP

Brotherhood requiring members to refuse to handle cars of a boycotted non-union line were not in force. He obeyed this order of court on March 22, 1893. This marks an era in the national history of labor agitation.

Legal Steps Against Strikes

Since the Ann Arbor decision, courts have not hesitated to go still further in the repression of labor movements which are deemed unlawfuly injurious to vested rights. On December 10, 1893, the receivers of the Northern Pacific Railroad Company applied to Judge Jenkins, in the United States Court in Milwaukee, for an order restraining the employees of that company from combining and conspiring to quit, with or without notice, the service of the road, with the object of embarrassing its operation, and generally from interfering with officers and agents of the receivers or their employees in any manner by actual violence, intimidation, threats, or otherwise.

This order was issued and served on December 26th, on the thirty-two men who composed the conference committee which had met the receivers. A similar order had been issued in the Ann Arbor case, but only after a strike was actually in progress.

Strike on the Lehigh Valley Railroad

Early in November, 1893, the operatives on the Lehigh Valley Railroad lines struck work, and on November 21st, 27,000 workingmen in the Wilkesbarre coal mines, who had no grievance against their employers, were forced to quit work for lack of railroad cars to move their products. The Lehigh strike was declared off on December 5, 1893, and a scramble for old places began among the men. Many were taken on again, but many found themselves unable to secure work. The point at issue in this strike was an interesting one. It was stated as follows, after examination of the conditions at Wilkesbarre: "The railroad officials shall recognize our amalgamated railroad society. They shall receive our head officer. We have a head as well as the railroad." Twenty engines were burned out. About one-half of the engineers and firemen and three-fourths of the trainmen got back, as individuals. New schedules of wages were issued, and a rule made that only men under forty-five years of age should be employed as engineers. Vain efforts were made to get up another strike against these regulations. G. W. Gourley, a non-union telegraph operator, brought from Philadelphia to Wilkesbarre in the course of the strike, died on December 9th of corrosive poisoning, and strikers were accused. Nothing was proven. The regular quarterly dividend on the Lehigh Valley stock,

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due in January, 1894, was passed. In a report to the Board of Directors, President E. P. Wilbur said that "the losses to freight and equipment during the strike amounted to $77,000." It was said that the strike cost the company about $600,000. In his report President Wilbur continued: "For the first time in the history of railroads the federated unions have united with the railroad organizations in an attempt to force recognition of and submission to demands which, if acceded to, would, in the opinion of the officers of your company, take the management of your property out of the hands of its stockholders and their representatives. The position of this company has been consistently maintained throughout, namely: that the policy of the management of the Lehigh Valley Railroad Company has always been to deal directly and only with its employees. Our company has always been ready to confer fully and freely with its employees, severally or in numbers, on any subject, and will continue to do so, but will neither recognize a foreign element as representative of our men, nor will we recognize a mixed committee from different branches of our service as competent to represent any one branch."

President Wilbur's Views

On November 25th nineteen hat factories in Danbury, Conn., closed their doors and discharged their workmen for an indefinite period. It was said that 90 per cent. of the population of this town of 20,000 people depended upon the hat industry for its support. There were thirty-one factories in operation at the time, nineteen of which suddenly refused to recognize the unions of their operatives, proposing three methods of settlement: "First, abandonment of the hat industry; second, the creation of independent shops; third, the continuation of the present agreements with increased privileges from the trade unions." The operatives declining to agree to any of these, the lockout began. Arbitration was instantly proposed all over the country. The remarks on this subject of a writer in *The Independent* may find place here:

Errors Regarding Arbitration

"Arbitration is good where both sides can be brought to agree to it. If one side objects it is, of course, impractical. Compulsory arbitration is not to be thought of. It would imply an invasion of the rights of both capital and labor. It goes on the assumption that workmen have the right to insist on employment, and that the owners have a right to insist upon service. Capital must be free to employ labor on the best terms it can make; labor must be free to

engage itself where it can get the best rates. . . . Labor must be free, capital must be free. If the problem raised by strikes is solved, it must be on the basis of liberty."

The Danbury trouble was talked of all over the country. Offers were made to found a co-operative shop for the men. A special town meeting was held on December 6th, and $50,000 was voted "to aid the unemployed," the latter doing most of the voting. One firm of employers took the employees back under the old terms on December 26th. On January 3d the other employers issued a warning to their locked-out men in which they said:

Warning to the Strikers

"We have waited about five weeks without taking any action that might deprive our former employees of an opportunity to work for us. If applications are not promptly made by them, and should they continue to prevent others from working for us so that we cannot fill the orders we now have in a reasonable time by work performed, it will be necessary to have the goods made elsewhere. It will be necessary for those who may receive employment to recognize the right of employers to employ whom they desire, whether members of a trade union or not."

There was a curious strike in Walter Damrosch's Symphony Orchestra on December 17, 1893, in Carnegie Music Hall. The other musicians, members of the Musical Union, refused to play with Otto Hegner, the 'cellist, because he was not a member of the union. He had not been six months in the United States, and was ineligible to membership, had he wished to join. It was feared at first the Symphony Orchestra, which had been organized in 1890 with a guaranty fund of $50,000 for the first year, might be disrupted. There was a compromise at length, and Mr. Damrosch yielded so far as to withdraw Hegner, who thereafter appeared only as a soloist. Mr. Damrosch was afterwards fined by the Musical Union for asking his orchestra to play with a non-union man.

Strike on the Great Northern Railway

The strike for increased wages on the Great Northern Railway, which began about the middle of April, 1894, involved 5,000 employees on 3,700 miles of lines. It suspended traffic, passenger and freight. The fight had been a determined one. United States troops were called upon to guard mail trains. The Knights of Labor joined hands with the striking members of the American Railway Union. On April 30th the claims of employers and employees were adjudicated by a conference of St. Paul and Minneapolis business

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men. Nineteen-twentieths of the points claimed for the strikers were awarded them, it is said, wages being restored to the figure at which they stood before the ten per cent. cut. All hands were ordered to return to work. But it was declared that all employees who had been arrested for delaying the mails, abandoning trains between stations, and maliciously injuring the company's property, must have their cases investigated before they could go back to work.

THE ANACONDA MINE, CRIPPLE CREEK

The hands employed in the silk ribbon factories of Paterson, N. J., struck in February, 1894. On March 13th there were 10,000 of them idle, and a mob of 1,000 of them rioted, invaded dye-shops, forced other workmen to strike, and terrorized mill owners. The cause of it all was the agreement of the United Silk Weavers of America on a scale of wages higher than the one in force. Strikes resulted in New York, Hoboken, Paterson, and Williamsburg. A ruinous idleness followed. A conference arranged by the business men of Paterson on April 29th failed to bring about an agreement. On May 2d Levy Brothers opened their mill, and ten out of 125 weavers returned at manufacturers' prices. On May 7th eleven out of 1,500 strikers returned to work. Non-union men were at work early in June in many of the mills.

Strike of the Coal Miners

The strike of the coal miners of the United States in the spring and summer of 1894 will be famous in history. It was deliberately planned. On April 11th the National Miners' Convention in Columbus, O., resolved that "the greatest coal-miners' strike the world ever saw" should be begun on April 21st for "the old scale and no compromise." And it was begun. President John McBride said on April 23d that 128,000 men were out in Alabama, Indiana, Illinois, Ohio, West Virginia, Pennsylvania, Minnesota, the Indian Territory, Iowa, Maryland, Tennessee, and Kentucky. By May 1st many industries, especially in the West, had been forced to shut down for

lack of fuel. More than a million and a half had been lost to the miners in wages. On May 6th miners were starving in Alabama. By the middle of May the railroads everywhere felt the coal famine severely. On May 25th rioting was in progress in many localities, and a good many lives had been lost. On June 8th it was announced that the Illinois operators were disposed to give in. By this time at Cripple Creek, Colo., the trouble had assumed the proportions of an insurrection, the governor had been asked to intervene, six citizens had been held prisoners by the strikers, and the state militia and a large number of deputy sheriffs, representing the county police force, were on the ground regarding each other with hostile eyes. On June 5th the representatives of the striking coal miners decided to abandon the idea of forcing a national settlement and to try a district settlement. Force, threats, arguments had been exhausted. In the mean time a peculiarly brutal course had been pursued by the Slav workmen in the coke region of Pennsylvania. For the first time since 1891 the coke ovens were left idle, on April 25th. Dynamite, assassination, amazonian charges, kidnapping, and torture were resorted to by the mob, and shooting and eviction by the masters.

Frightful Outrages by Strikers

On June 1st it was estimated that $3,500,000 had been lost in price of coal to operators, freight to the railroad companies, and wages to the miners. Local conferences of miners and operators were held. On June 11th a compromise was agreed upon at such a conference in Columbus, acting for the men in Ohio, Pennsylvania, Indiana, and Illinois. An advance of 15 cents a ton was settled. A general protest against this settlement began the next day. The miners wanted a greater advance. In the mean time the many bridges and much other railroad property had been destroyed. The coke manufacturers began to start their works with non-union men. Many miners' meetings were held rejecting the compromise agreed on at Columbus. The strike in Alabama had already collapsed, "starvation and convict labor" being given as the reasons. The Pittsburg miners agreed to the compromise on being assured by President McBride that it was "take what he got or be disastrously defeated." There was a slow but general resumption of work. President McBride said that the national officers of the miners' organization had been "hurried to a settlement by the knowledge of conspiracies for terrible violence." The miners had lost by June 16th in wages

Gradual Collapse of the Strike

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about $12,500,000. The total loss, including that of the operators, to that date had been about $25,000,000.

An incendiary fire in the Mary Lee mine, near Birmingham, supposed to be the work of striking coal miners, resulted in the death of four men, July 20th. The striking Slavs and Italians in the Western Pennsylvania mines armed themselves with dynamite, and two regiments of state troops were ordered to Walston, June 21st. The strikers fled, but in a few days succeeded in persuading many of the non-union men employed in their places to quit work. But days passed without the strikers gaining any decisive advantage, and negroes and other outsiders were successfully put to work. The striking miners, who now saw starvation at their doors, continued to march and countermarch to no purpose. In a battle between negro miners and marching strikers at Scottdale, Pa., July 11th, two negroes were mortally wounded. But it was already settled that the great coal-miners' strike was an utter failure.

Great Pullman Car Strike

The Pullman Car Company, whose works are near Chicago, has been largely engaged for years in the manufacture of sleeping-cars, and has contracts with numerous railway companies for the running of the cars over their lines. Dull times forced the Pullman company, early in the spring of 1894, to give their large number of employees the choice of accepting a cut in their wages or of having the works closed. They accepted the former, the reduction being from twenty-five to almost fifty per cent., with the understanding that the old rates were to be restored as soon as the business of the company warranted it.

The suffering of the workmen was so great that in May they declared they could not live upon the pittance they received, and they demanded the restoration of the old rates. The company refused, declaring that they were running the business at a loss, for no other purpose than that of keeping the men employed. This was not satisfactory, and, on the 11th of May, 3,000 workmen, the majority of the whole number, struck. Thereupon the company closed the works.

Eugene V. Debs

The American Railway Union, of which Eugene V. Debs is president, took charge of the case and declared a boycott of all Pullman cars. The effect of this sweeping order was to forbid all engineers, brakemen, and switchmen from handling the cars, on whatever road they were used. At the same time the Union demanded that the

Pullman company should submit the dispute to arbitration. The company replied that there was nothing to arbitrate, since the question was whether they should or should not manage their own works. A boycott on all Pullman cars was declared on June 26th, to begin on the Illinois Central, thence spreading over the country. The companies that persisted in handling the Pullman cars were warned that their employees would strike, and behind it all was a threat to call out every trade in the country.

Failure to Arbitrate

Inasmuch as the railway companies that had nothing to do with the manufacture of the cars were under heavy bonds to draw them, they could not consent to the boycott without enormous loss. They refused, and, on June 29th, President Debs declared a boycott on twenty-two roads running out of Chicago, and ordered the committees representing the employees on each road to call out the workmen as rapidly as possible, thus blocking all freight, passenger, and mail transportation. Some of these roads did not use the Pullman cars, but their officers had joined the Chicago General Managers' Association, and thus incurred the hostility of the American Railway Union, less than a year old, and which had been formed with the object of absorbing within itself all the separate unions of the different classes of railway employees. It had a large following in the West and Southwest, but was weak in the East, where the admirable organization known as the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers has the good will of the employers no less than that of the employees themselves.

The strike, as was expected, extended rapidly. President Debs urged his men to refrain from interference with the property of railroads, but such advice is always disregarded. Rioting soon broke out in many quarters, trains were blockaded or derailed, and men who wished to take the strikers' places were savagely beaten. The cutting off of many supplies from Chicago caused prices to rise to an astonishing figure, and a famine impended. The destruction of railway property became so serious that the companies called on the city and county authorities for protection. The forces furnished being unable to cope with the turbulent mob, Governor Altgeld was appealed to, and he sent troops to the scene, but they, too, were insufficient to overawe the lawbreakers. As is often the case, the militia showed more sympathy with the strikers than with the authorities.

Turbulence of the Strikers

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Unfortunately for the strikers, they brought the United States Government into the dispute. The mails and postal service were checked, and deputy marshals were resisted. The national Government is bound to protect the great lines of interstate commerce, which also suffered interference. Notice of such action was made to the Attorney-General's office at Washington, and on July 2d a Federal writ was issued covering the judicial district of Northern Illinois, forbidding all persons from interfering with the mail-conveyance or with interstate railroad commerce. The arrest of several leaders followed, an act that incited the strikers to threats of revolt and treason. The situation was so alarming that the grand jury was summoned to find indictments against President Debs and others. The Government having received notice that United States troops were necessary in Chicago to enforce the orders of the courts, a large force of cavalry, artillery, and infantry was sent thither from the regular army. Governor Altgeld, as might have been expected, made a long protest by telegraph, but was properly snubbed, and President Cleveland sent still more troops to Chicago, since it was apparent that the governor's course had encouraged the strikers.

EUGENE V. DEBS

Action of President Cleveland

It should be noted that most of the latter were foreigners, chiefly Poles and Bohemians. A mob of more than 20,000 had several collisions with the military, and a number were killed and wounded. Trains were ditched, buildings fired, and more troops were ordered to the scene of disturbances, the President declaring that the lawbreakers should be put down, if it required the whole United States army to do it, since the Constitution clearly made such action his duty.

The strike assumed serious proportions in California, where there has long been a strong antagonism to the railroads. The greatest trouble was at Los Angeles, Oakland, and Sacramento, where the

State militia refused to charge the rioters when ordered to do so. While a force of regular troops were going to the scene of the disturbance on the railroad, the train was ditched by strikers, and several were killed and hurt.* There was no fear that the regulars would refuse to attack the law-breakers; the only fear of the soldiers was that they might not be permitted to perform the service for which they had been summoned.

Good Effect of the President's Vigor

The prompt and stern measures of President Cleveland soon proved effective. In addition, the immense numbers of persons who naturally feel a sympathy with poor men struggling to better their condition were filled with indignation at the acts of the murderous strikers. The rock of safety in this country is the law-loving sentiment of the overwhelming majority. It was seen that the mobs were composed of foreigners—not those that had spent several years in the country and had become Americans in sentiment (and they include many of our best citizens), but ignorant, brutal aliens, the dregs of Europe, hardly able to speak the English language. They were the tools of demagogues, who, like the pestilent carpet-baggers of the South, were eager to adopt any means that promised them personal advantage.

The strength of the strike waned almost as rapidly as it rose. The other labor organizations that were called out refused to obey; instead of doing so, they expressed sympathy and kept at their work. On July 10th, President Debs, Vice-President Howard, and other leaders of the American Railway Union were arrested and arraigned on charge of obstructing the United States mails and of interfering with the execution of the laws of the United States. The leaders were released on bail. They and others—forty-three in all—were indicted by the Federal grand jury on July 19th, the bonds being fixed at $10,000 for each. Bail was offered them, but they declined to accept it and were lodged in jail. On December 14th Judge Woods sentenced Debs to six months' imprisonment for contempt, the terms of the other leaders being three months each. Many felt that this summary action, in which the accused were not allowed a trial by jury, was unjustifiable. It was not sympathy for the agitators that

Punishment of the Leaders

* Upon the monument erected to the memory of the soldiers killed by the ditching of the train, General W. M. Graham, commandant at the Presidio, caused the inscription to be cut, "Murdered by Strikers." The indignant labor organizations in San Francisco protested and demanded the removal of the words, but the grim soldier replied: "The words are true and they shall remain," and they are there still.

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led to condemnation of the Federal authorities, but the fact that the men had been condemned and punished without indictment and trial by jury. It was a dangerous step, and a distinct menace to the personal liberty of all citizens.

The strike was a vast failure, and, though it caused much uneasiness and alarm in remote sections not directly affected by the disturbances, it taught several important lessons. We have already referred to one—the peril from ignorant, brutalized foreigners, the offscourings of Europe, that are turned loose upon our shores to become tools of designing men tenfold more guilty than they.

Lessons of the Strike

When the flurry was all over, President Debs declared that he never again would have any official connection with a strike, for so long as they are repugnant to society, so long is it idle to strike. No matter upon how extensive a plan it is organized, failure is inevitable. The only remedy is at the polls. The leaders of other organized branches of labor expressed the same sentiment. Workingmen must look to the ballot for relief.

The general committee of the strikers on August 5th officially declared the strike at an end in Chicago, and their action was quickly followed in other directions. On July 25th President Cleveland appointed Carroll D. Wright, Commissioner of Labor, John D. Kernan, of New York, and Nicholas E. Worthington, of Illinois, a commission to investigate the causes of the strike. In their report they recommended a permanent United States Railroad Strike Commission of three members, whose recommendations should be enforceable by the courts. It encouraged orderly labor unions, the licensing of railway employees, and a system somewhat of the nature of that prevailing in Massachusetts, for the promotion of arbitration.

Statistics of the Strikes

According to the statistics of *Bradstreet*, which appeared in the latter part of January, 1894, there were in 119 principal cities 801,000 unemployed, with about 2,000,000 dependent upon them for support. In New England, 21 cities had 66,200 unemployed, with 154,400 dependants. In New York and New Jersey (including Wilmington, Del.), 15 cities had 223,250 unemployed, with 563,750 dependants. Twenty-four cities in the Central West had 227,340 unemployed, with 443,310 dependants. The same woful story was true of other sections of the country, the only cities containing no enforced idlers being Augusta (Ga.), Mobile, and Houston.

In Boston, February 20th, a throng of about 2,000 unemployed, who

DITCHING A TRAIN

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FROM THE ORIGINAL DRAWING BY J. STEEPLE DAVIS

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called themselves "Socialist-Anarchists," after being addressed on the Common by a number of speakers, marched to the State house, and through their leaders demanded employment of Governor Greenhalge and an address from him. The governor went out on the balcony and assured the crowd that while he personally would do all he could for them, and would recommend to the legislature such action as was within its sphere, they must not forget that the law-making body had no power to employ men unless it had money to pay them, and unless the work was needed for the public good. He reminded them that the first duty of every citizen was to obey the law.

A Rebuff

The leaders of the crowd entered the legislative chambers and laid their demand before the senate and the representatives. Signs of turbulence increased after the withdrawal of the agitators, when the police appeared and cleared the building.

The most striking appeal directly to the law-making body by the unemployed was by Coxey's "Commonweal Army." J. S. Coxey, a horse-breeder and stone-quarry owner in Massillon, O., started from that place, March 25th, with about 75 men. Six days later, when they had reached Beaver Falls, Pa., they numbered 170. The plan of this "army," which carried no weapons, was to gather recruits on the march, and to reach Washington about the 1st of May, by which time it was believed there would be a hundred thousand strong.

The announced object of this movement was to make an impressive demand upon Congress for the enactment of two laws: the first providing for an issue of $500,000,000 legal-tender notes, to be expended by the Secretary of War at the rate of $20,000,000 per month in constructing roads throughout the country. The second law was to provide that any State, city, or village may deposit in the United States treasury non-interest-bearing bonds to an amount not more than one-half the assessed valuation of its property, on which the Secretary of the Treasury shall issue legal-tender notes.

The "Commonweal Army"

The "army" which thus set out for the capital of the country was the strangest procession of the kind that was ever looked upon. There was a mingling of the pathetic and ludicrous appealing to one's sympathy, and, while it excited ridicule in many quarters, it caused misgiving in others. Who should forecast the growth of this multitude which might be recruited at almost every mile, while numerous similar bands started from different parts of the country

towards the same point? How many men would gather in Washington on the 1st of May? What would they do? Would they be controllable?

The movement was a proof that there was, and still is, "something wrong" in our social system. The sad problem that has vexed the ages is not yet solved. When shall it be?

March of the Army

The march was continued with the leader in his carriage and his lieutenants on horses. While their approach excited alarm in many places, they committed no depredations and were enthusiastically received at other points. Sometimes the town authorities supplied their wants and sometimes it was met by private aid, the real purpose being to hasten the departure of the visitors. Additions and desertions kept their number at varying figures, but at no time did it exceed 500, and when Coxey entered Washington, April 29th, he had just 336 men, with whom he paraded through the streets, May 1st. Preparations had been made by the authorities for their coming, and a death blow was administered to the intended spectacular display, in the presentation of the petition, by the action of the police in shutting them out from the Capitol grounds. Coxey and two of his leaders took a short cut, were arrested and fined five dollars apiece, and sentenced to twenty days' imprisonment for violating the statute against carrying a banner in the grounds and trespassing on the grass. The army rapidly crumbled to pieces and passed into oblivion.

Other "armies" converged towards Washington from Oregon, Montana, Colorado, Wyoming, and different points in the West. Unhappily, however, many vagrants and disreputable men took their places in the ranks, and more than one scene of disorder followed. In the State of Washington the "Commonwealers" seized a train, several men were wounded in a fight with deputy marshals, and it became necessary to call out the state militia. Similar depredations were committed in Kansas, Illinois, Indiana, and Pennsylvania. A careful estimate gives the following strength of the six principal "industrial armies": 1. Coxey's, maximum strength, 500; 2. Frye's, from Los Angeles, Cal., near the end of March, maximum, 1,000; 3. Kelly's, from San Francisco, April 3d, maximum, 2,000; 4. Randall's, from Chicago, May 1st, maximum, 1,000; 5. Hogan's, from Montana, April 20th, maximum, 500; 6. One from Oregon, about April 15th, maximum, 900. The total is less than 6,000 men.

Strength of the Industrial Armies

The Brooklyn trolley strike in the latter part of January, 1895

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was attended by violence and bloodshed. In obedience to the orders of the Knights of Labor, it began on Monday, January 14th, its "violent stage" continuing for sixteen days, when it gradually subsided. The forty-eight trolley lines radiating from the Brooklyn bridge were involved, including the 5,500 men employed on the cars and at the electric power stations.

The Brooklyn Trolley Strike

At the opening of the year the men demanded that a working day should consist of ten hours' work during twelve successive hours of time; that the five minutes of waiting for passengers at the beginning and end of every trip should form a part of the ten hours' work, and that the pay for each working day should be raised, as had been promised by the companies, from $2 to $2.25. To prevent the crowding out of the regular men by the employment of an unusual number of "trippers" (who received $1.50 a day on one-trip cars), it was insisted that the number of such extra men should be limited. Furthermore, the employees demanded that no schedule should call for a greater running speed than ten miles an hour. This was a most reasonable demand, since the dangerous speed of the trolley cars in Brooklyn has been the cause of so many deaths (aggregating almost 200 at this writing), that the city has gained a gruesome reputation throughout the country.*

The employers refused to accede to these demands, and the strike followed. Violence was certain to break out, and at the request of the companies the mayor ordered the police to use vigilance and vigor in suppressing disorder. Vicious men mingled with the strikers, and the cars were obstructed, windows were smashed, and the police forced to a standstill. Men who came from other cities to take the places of the strikers were savagely beaten and driven off. On the second day of the strike, 5,000 rioters attacked the police at the Atlantic-Avenue depot, but were repulsed by the mounted policemen.

Rioting by the Strikers

Matters rapidly grew worse, and on the fifth day the mayor declared that the police were unable to repress the rioting and keep the tracks clear. He made a requisition for the militia, and the Second Brigade of the National Guard was ordered out, and several lines

* There was grim force in the proposed bill of a New York legislator that the punishment for capital crimes should be changed from electrocution to that of "turning loose" the condemned in Brooklyn. "The trolley cars," said he, "are sure to get them, and they are as effective as electricity."

From Leslie's Weekly

SCENES IN BROOKLYN DURING THE TROLLEY STRIKE. JANUARY 1895

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reopened. On the night of the 19th the mob became so violent at the East New York stables, that the soldiers were compelled to charge five times upon them, during which five persons were wounded.

Meanwhile, attempts had been made to bring the strike to an end by arbitration, but they failed, and the outlook was so threatening that a requisition was made upon Governor Morton for more troops. On Sunday night, the 20th, the 4,000 soldiers comprising the First Brigade crossed the bridge and joined the 2,500 already in Brooklyn.

Help from the State

The city now looked like war times. Streets were barricaded, camp-fires gleamed on the highways, sentries moved to and fro, there were cavalry dashes by the fine Troop A from New York, while many felt that a crisis was approaching.

A general once insisted that it should be a court-martial offence for any officer to order his men to fire over the heads of a mob. It is undoubtedly true that energetic measures at the first appearance of revolt will quell it at once, while leniency encourages rioters to violence. A mob on the Gates-Avenue line shot two policemen, when the soldiers gave them a volley that sent them skurrying to cover.

The subsidence of the strike dated from this point. The strikers saw the inevitable end. Twenty-two of the forty-eight lines were reopened for travel on Wednesday. Collisions occurred at different points, and several lives were lost, but new men were steadily taking the places of the strikers, who saw that if they remained out much longer there would be no room for them to return on any terms. On January 28th the New York troops were ordered to break camp and return home, and on the day following the strikers made conditional proposals to return to work.

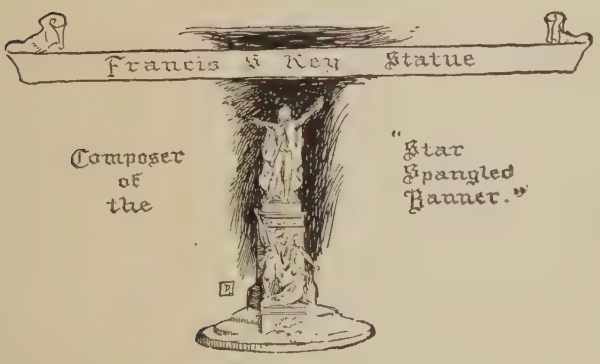
Statistics of the Strike

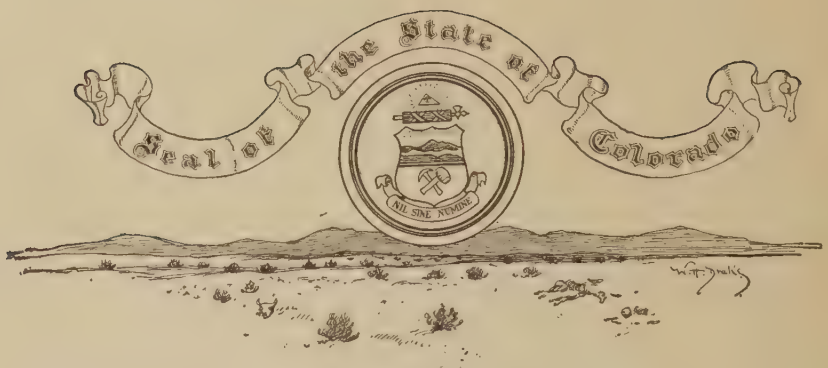
In April the special committee of the New York State Assembly appointed to investigate the trolley strike in Brooklyn reported that 5,000 men were thrown out of employment, of whom only about one-tenth recovered their places. The loss in wages to the men was about $750,000, besides the loss after the close of the strike to those remaining unemployed. It cost $275,000 to suppress the disorder, while no estimate can be placed upon the loss to the companies and the business community. The causes of the strike were mainly the schemes by which the lines strove to secure an increased profit on capital without giving labor any corresponding benefit. Except for

the failure of the men to ask for arbitration before striking, the committee placed the blame for the causes which led to the strike wholly upon the company.

Great Coal Strike in West Virginia

A strike involving thousands of laborers broke out among the coal mines of West Virginia in the summer of 1897. General sympathy was felt for the strikers, whose wages, in many cases, were meagre and hardly above the starvation point. Eugene V. Debs and John R. Sovereign, General Master-Workman of the Knights of Labor, were active in promoting the strike, while P. M. Arthur, Chief of the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers, expressed his sympathy, though his organization took no official action in the matter. Sympathetic strikes occurred in adjoining States, and the lockout assumed formidable proportions. It lost ground in Western Virginia, where many men returned to work, in response to the offer of increased wages, but the disorganization caused by the widespread suspension of work lasted for a long time.





CHAPTER XC

CLEVELAND'S SECOND ADMINISTRATION, 1893–97 (CONCLUDED)

[*Authorities:* To him who reflects upon the possibilities of industrial development through the agency of the discovery and utilization of nature's forces, there is, perhaps, among the many interesting subjects treated in this chapter, none more suggestive than the "harnessing of Niagara." Energy derived primarily from the sun has been wasted by millions of horse-power for ages in the downpour of those stupendous falls. If that energy were all diverted to human needs, the total manufacturing and locomotive industries of our country could be supplied by it. Add to this the unused energy of our hundreds of rivers, the calorific power in the rays of the sun, and, greater than all, the dynamics in the ebb and flow of the tides, and we have an aggregate beyond the power of the imagination to conceive. The comparatively insignificant beginning at Niagara suggests the substitution of these tremendous forces for human labor in the early future. The same source of energy will perhaps supply cities as remote from each other as Chicago and New York with power for all their manifold needs. It is not by any means improbable that the homes of the future will be warmed in winter and cooled in summer by electricity, and that the same agency will perform most of the work that now constitutes domestic drudgery.

British and American diplomatic correspondence, the excellent "Current History" edited by Alfred S. Johnson, and the leading newspapers and periodicals have been drawn upon for much of the matter in this chapter.]

Niagara Falls.

ON January 4, 1896, President Cleveland signed a proclamation by which Utah became the forty-fifth State of the Union. The order for the addition to the national flag of the star representing the State was issued by Secretary Lamont, August 27, 1895. The position of the star on the flag is at the right-hand end of the fourth row from the top, as shown in the colored frontispiece to Volume Six of this History. At the same time the regulation size of the colors was changed from 6 by 5 feet to 5 feet 6 inches by 4 feet 4 inches.

The constitution of Utah contains several noteworthy features. It grants complete suffrage to women, including the right to hold office and to sit on juries. A thorough liberal and progressive educational system is projected. Grand juries are abolished except in special circumstances, information taking the place of indictment, and the trial jury consists of eight instead of twelve persons, three-fourths of whom may render a verdict in civil cases, but a unanimous vote is necessary to convict of crime. Polygamy, the great blot upon Utah, is prohibited by her new constitution.

The New State of Utah

The State has an area of 84,970 square miles, of which 2,780 is water surface. Its chief resources are mineral and agricultural, and its climate is finely adapted to their development. Its population is about 250,000; its assessed valuation of property in 1895 was $97,983,525, and the total export of mineral product in that year was $8,312,352. Utah has 19,816 farms, of which 17,684 are free from all incumbrances. The irrigated acreage is 417,455 acres. The number of sheep owned in Utah in 1894 was 2,422,802, valued at $3,696,934, and yielding a wool clip of 12,119,763 pounds, with a value at shipping points of $864,260. January 6th was observed as a holiday in celebration of the birth of the new State. The first governor, Heber M. Wells, was elected in the preceding November, and Frank J. Cannon and Arthur Brown, Republicans, were elected United States Senators and took the oath of office January 27th.

The power that has gone to waste for ages at Niagara Falls is inconceivable, and the problem of utilizing a portion of it has long engaged the attention and study of scientific minds. As long ago as 1725 the first attempt was made by the operation of a primitive saw-mill. After this, the prodigious torrent was permitted to flow on unfretted until 1842, when Augustus Porter formulated the scheme of hydraulic canals, but none was completed until 1861.

Harnessing Niagara

On March 31, 1886, the Niagara Falls Power Company was incorporated, and in 1889 the Cataract Construction Company. Work was begun in October, 1890, three years being required to complete the tunnel, the surface canal, and the first wheel-pits. The canal has an average depth of 12 feet, and a width of 250 feet. It taps the river a mile and a quarter above the falls, and draws off enough water to develop 100,000 horse power. The walls of the canal have ten inlets for delivering water to the wheel-pit in the power-house, at

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the side of the canal. This pit has a depth of 178 feet, and is connected by a lateral tunnel with the main tunnel, which operates as a tail-race, and returns the water to the river below the falls. It took 1,000 men more than three years to excavate the tunnel. There were 300,000 tons of rock removed, and 16,000,000 bricks were used for lining. The turbines work under a head of 140 feet, and each develops 5,000 horse-power.

In August, 1895, the first distribution of power was made to the works of the Pittsburg Reduction Company, near the canal. The Carborundum Company, the Calcium Company, the Buffalo and

SALT LAKE CITY

Niagara Railway Company, and the Niagara Falls Electric Company subsequently made use of the power.

Success of the Effort

The city of Buffalo, in December, 1895, granted a franchise to the company to supply power to that city, by the terms of which 10,000 horse-power was to be furnished to consumers by June 1, 1896, and 10,000 additional horse-power in each successive year. The Buffalo Railway Company was the first customer. At midnight, on November 15, 1896, the current was transmitted by a pole line, consisting of three continuous cables of uninsulated copper, with a total length of seventy-eight miles.

Since then street cars have been successfully operated, and the Niagara Falls Power Company is busily engaged in preparing more

From Scientific American

HARNESSING NIAGARA—ENGINE-ROOM OF THE NIAGARA FALLS POWER COMPANY

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generators, with which the tremendous energy will be conducted to other industrial points at varying distances from the cataract.

Our country was thrown into excitement in the latter part of 1895 and in the following year by what threatened to involve us in a war with England over the question of the boundary line in Venezuela. There had been a flurry with Spain some time before because of her firing into the American steamer *Allianca*, which she unjustly suspected of being engaged in helping the filibusters of Cuba, but

NIAGARA FALLS

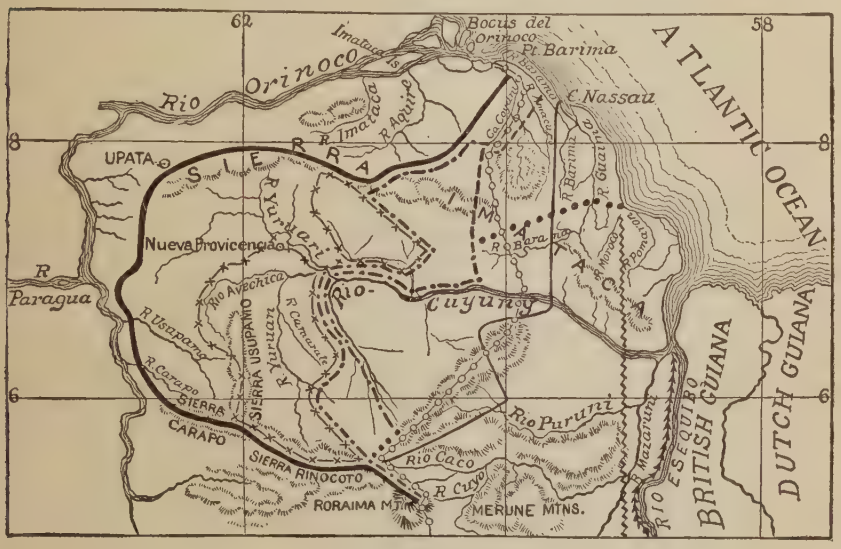
that was satisfactorily settled before the new international dispute arose.

Great Britain's Quarrel with Venezuela

The quarrel between Great Britain and Venezuela was an old one. Between the mouths of the Orinoco and the Amazon, along the northeast coast of South America, lies the territory which down to 1810 was known as the Guianas. In the year named a large part of this territory was ceded to Venezuela by Spain, while another portion went to Great Britain from Holland in 1814. The boundary between the Dutch and Spanish possessions had never been fixed by treaty. As might have been anticipated, the "earth hunger"

of England soon led to a dispute, which continued until 1887, when it reached a stage that led to a breaking off of the diplomatic relations between her and Venezuela.

Venezuela claims all territory west of the Essequibo River and southward to the border of Brazil, in support of which she presents a long array of historical facts. In 1883, the weak republic began an appeal, continued until 1887, and which at times was pitiful, that the burly, overbearing empire should submit the dispute to arbitration by some disinterested power. In the year named there were found three sources of disagreement—the Guiana frontier, differential



MAP OF VENEZUELA

duties, and pecuniary claims—the first overshadowing the others in importance. England persistently refused all appeals while dealing with this weak power. It was not until the latter part of the year 1840 that she advanced beyond the Pomaron River. Then she entered the region named, and set up a claim to the whole Atlantic coast to the Orinoco delta. In 1841, Sir Robert Schomburgk, the English commissioner, erected the boundary since known by his name.

The Claims of Great Britain

Venezuela was indignant, and ordered the Schomburgk frontier marks at Barima to be removed. Matters rested until 1844, when England proposed a boundary line beginning a short distance west

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of the Pomaron River, but in 1881 she once more set up a claim that included the valleys of the Pomaron and the Moroco; five years later her claim extended to the bank of the Guiana river, and in 1890 she suggested a divisional line that gave her practical control of the Orinoco delta. Finally, in 1893, she proposed a boundary line beginning at the mouth of the Amacuro and taking such course as to include the upper waters of the Cumana and thence to the sierra of the Usupamo. The territory in dispute is larger than the State of New York, and contains gold mines of great richness, a fact that doubtless has much to do with the persistency of England in refusing to submit the dispute to arbitration. Should she succeed in maintaining her claim she would control the navigable outlet of the great Orinoco river, which represents one-fourth of the commerce of South America, and she would in addition exert a marked influence upon the commercial and political relations of Venezuela, Colombia, and Brazil.

The Disputed Territory

The United States could not view this dispute with indifference. In February, 1895, Congress passed a joint resolution, approving the suggestion made by the President in his message, urging that the question be referred to arbitrators. The purport of the resolution was laid before Great Britain by Ambassador Bayard, but the English authorities still refused to submit to arbitration their asserted right to the territory east of the Schomburgk line. They intimated that the question was wholly between them and Venezuela, or in other words advised the United States to attend to its own business.

The interest of our country in this question lay in the probability that the Monroe Doctrine was likely to be involved. Though this is not a part of the recognized body of international law, it is one of our most cherished principles, and we could never stand idly by while foreign governments were extending their possessions and power on the western hemisphere. There was a lengthy correspondence between England and our Government during the summer and latter part of 1895. On December 17th President Cleveland submitted the correspondence to Congress, accompanying it with a message of so vigorous a character that it electrified the country. He asked for authority from Congress to appoint a Commission to determine the merits of the boundary dispute, in order that the Government should decide its line of action, insisting that if England maintained

The Monroe Doctrine Threatened

THE VENEZUELA COMMISSIONERS IN SESSION

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wrongful course, the United States should resist "by every means in its power, as a wilful aggression upon its rights and interests, the appropriation by Great Britain of any lands, or the exercise of governmental jurisdiction over any territory, which after investigation we have determined of right belongs to Venezuela."

The Commission of Inquiry

Congress, as well as the country at large, ardently approved this patriotic language. The sum of $100,000 was immediately appropriated for the expenses of the Commission of Inquiry. Two days later the Senate unanimously passed the same bill. On the 1st of January, 1896, the President announced the members of the Commission as follows:

David J. Brewer, Republican, associate justice of the Supreme Court of the United States, made president of the Commission.

Richard H. Alvey, Democrat, of Maryland, chief justice of the court of appeals of the District of Columbia.

Andrew D. White, Republican, of New York, ex-president of Cornell University, and ex-minister to Germany and Russia.

Frederick R. Coudert, Democrat, of New York, formerly a member of the counsel of the United States in the Bering Sea arbitration.

Daniel C. Gilman of Maryland, president of Johns Hopkins Univerity, independent in politics, but with Republican "leanings."

In the latter part of January the Commission began regular meetings. Mr. William L. Scruggs, ex-minister from the United States to Venezuela, represented the latter country by appointment as counsel. An immense mass of material in the shape of maps, documents, and old books was placed before the commission, and the researches were vigorously prosecuted.

The British Position

The British blue book on the Venezuelan question was laid on the table of the House of Commons on March 6th. This gave the position of Great Britain in the boundary dispute. She insisted that if the basis of strict right was insisted on, she, as successor of the Dutch, was entitled to the territory extending to Barima, including the watersheds of all the rivers of Guiana south of the Orinoco which flow into the Atlantic. England had certainly made out a strong claim, and the decision of the Commission was awaited with anxiety. The belligerent spirit, however, rapidly subsided in both countries, though a wide diversity of sentiment was manifested in Congress.

On January 8th the Washington correspondent of the radical

Chronicle of London proposed in that paper that the dispute should be included in a general plan for arbitration of all questions between Great Britain and the United States which fail of diplomatic settlement. He directed attention to resolutions favoring such an arrangement adopted in Congress on April 4, 1890, responded to by a resolution in Parliament on June 16, 1893.

The Danger of War

The prospect of a war between the two great English-speaking nations was terrifying, and would turn back the hands of progress for years, and indeed be an incalculable calamity to civilization. Numerous "peace meetings," at which the most eminent citizens were present, were held in different cities, and the sentiments expressed were heartily responded to in Great Britain. On February 18th the London *Times* published a plan for a Joint Commission, it being understood unofficially that our Government would accept it if proposed. Not only the *Times* but other papers urged it on the British Government. The following is the plan:

A new Commission to be created by agreement between Great Britain and the United States, consisting of two Englishmen and two Americans, the two Americans probably to be two members of the present Commission;

This new Commission to take up the inquiry, not in order to determine the boundary or draw a divisional line between British Guiana and Venezuela, but to ascertain the facts and to report to both Governments;

The four members to complete the inquiry if unanimous or if a majority of the whole concur;

If they fail to agree, a fifth member, a neutral, to be appointed by the President of the Swiss Republic or some other acceptable personage;

The findings of this Commission upon matters of fact to be binding upon both Governments, and to serve as a basis for subsequent direct negotiations between all parties concerned with a view to agreeing upon the boundary line;

New Negotiations

Should these direct negotiations fail, the question to be remitted to a tribunal composed, for instance, of the chief justices of England and the United States, with, if necessary, a third neutral member.

The air was full of rumors, and there was a general feeling of unrest on both sides of the Atlantic. The Commission kept steadily at work, but progressed slowly, and our Government carefully refrained

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from interfering with it. In May the Boundary Commission's chief historical expert, Professor George L. Burr, of Cornell University, sailed for Holland to examine the Dutch records relating to the dispute. The supplementary British blue book was expected soon, after which an expert would be sent to Madrid to examine the Spanish archives.

Meanwhile, the British colony in Demerara became impatient, and Venezuela protested against the delay caused by the slow work of the Commission, and declared that the British colonists, encouraged by officials of the home Government, were penetrating not only the rich gold fields, but the inland valleys, thus expanding the "settled districts" which Lord Salisbury was reluctant to make subject to arbitration.

AMBASSADOR BAYARD

Two questions, one of momentous importance to all nations, steadily forged themselves into the foreground. The first was the settlement of the boundary dispute, and the second and vastly greater was the establishment of a scheme of general arbitration between England and the United States. At the suggestion of Ambassador Bayard, Lord Salisbury empowered Sir Julian Pauncefote, the British ambassador at Washington, to enter into correspondence with Secretary Olney with the purpose of reaching a clearly defined agreement as a basis of negotiation to constitute a tribunal for the arbitration of the Venezuelan question. On March 5, 1896, the following heads of a suggested treaty were submitted to Secretary Olney by Lord Salisbury through her Majesty's ambassador:

PROPOSED ARBITRATION

On February 21st Ambassador Bayard suggested to Lord Salisbury that he empower the British ambassador at Washington, Sir Julian Pauncefote, to enter into correspondence with Secretary Olney with a view to reaching a well-defined agreement as a basis of negotiation to constitute a tribunal for the arbitration of the Venezuelan

question. With this request Lord Salisbury complied; and on March 5th he submitted to Secretary Olney through her Majesty's ambassador the heads of a suggested treaty of arbitration. A synopsis of this treaty follows:

Synopsis of the Treaty Proposed

1 *Number of Arbitrators and Method of Appointment*—Her Britannic Majesty and the President of the United States shall each appoint two or more permanent judicial officers for the purposes of this treaty; and, on the appearance of any question which in the judgment of either nation cannot be settled by negotiation, each shall choose one of the said officials as arbitrator, and the two arbitrators shall hear and determine any matter referred to them in accordance with this treaty.

2 *Provision for Appointment of an Umpire*—Before entering on such arbitration the arbitrators shall elect an umpire whose decision shall be final in all cases where there is disagreement between the arbitrators, whether in interlocutory or final questions.

3 *Kinds of Questions to be Submitted*—Complaints made by the national representatives of one power against the officers of the other; all claims or group of claims amounting to not more than £100,000; all claims for damages or indemnity under this amount; all questions affecting diplomatic or consular privileges; all alleged rights of fishery, access, navigation, or commercial privilege; and all questions referred by special agreement between the two parties, shall come under the operations of this treaty.

4 *A Court of Review*—If, after an award has been reported, either party shall protest against it within three months, the award shall be reviewed by a court composed of three of the judges of the Supreme Court of Great Britain and three of the judges of the Supreme Court of the United States. If this court shall decide by a majority of not less than five to one that the award is just, it shall stand. This court is to review decisions regarding questions of fact or of international law involving territory, territorial rights, sovereignty, or jurisdiction of either power, or any pecuniary claim or group of claims of any kind involving a sum larger than £100,000, when either party protests against the award as stated above.

Work of the Court of Review

5 *Questions Involving National Honor*—Any difference which, in the judgment of either power, materially affects its honor or the integrity of its territory, shall not be referred to arbitration under this treaty except by special agreement.

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6 *A Way of Escape*—Any difference whatever, by agreement between the two powers, may be referred for decision by arbitration as

RICHARD OLNEY

herein provided, with the stipulation that unless accepted by both powers the decision shall not be valid.

In his reply of April 11th, Secretary Olney approved all these stipulations with the exception of those made in Sections 4 and 6. He deemed the provisions of the former not sufficiently broad, and

thought that questions of the nature described in Section 4, and pecuniary claims or groups of claims aggregating a sum larger than £100,000, and all controversies not specially described, be submitted to this board of arbitration, with the provision that before the arbitral tribunal meet, the Parliament of Great Britain or the Congress of the United States shall not declare such questions to involve the national honor or territorial integrity. Should such declaration be made, the question is to be withdrawn from arbitration. The awards were to be final if concurred in by all the arbitrators; if by only a majority, they shall be final unless one of the parties to the arbitration protests that the decision is erroneous in respect of some issue of fact or law. Then, a court consisting of three judges of the Supreme Court of the United States and three judges of the Supreme Court of Great Britain are to decide the question. If this court is equally divided, they shall appoint three learned and impartial jurists to be added to the court, a majority of which, as thus constituted, shall decide questions.

Other Provisions

Secretary Olney added that if this amendment proved acceptable to Lord Salisbury, he saw no reason why the pending dispute regarding the Venezuelan boundary should not be included in the treaty, and that if no general arbitration treaty was probable, the Venezuelan boundary question might be used as an experiment in arbitration, whose settlement would probably indicate the lines along which a general scheme for arbitration could be drawn.

Instead of accepting Mr. Olney's suggestion that the Venezuelan question be included in the proposed arbitration treaty, Lord Salisbury suggested that two subjects of Great Britain and two citizens of the United States be appointed to report upon the facts affecting the rights of Spain and Holland at the time when Great Britain acquired British Guiana. This commission having reported, Great Britain and Venezuela should seek to come to an agreement, failing in which, each should appoint a commissioner, and these two should select a third. The decision of the three commissioners was to be final, but it could not include as Venezuelan any territory occupied by British subjects on or before January 1, 1887.

Points of Difference

Secretary Olney thought that the last clause was mischievous since it might become the means though which Venezuela would be stripped of rightful possessions merely because British colonists had been erroneously taught to regard such possessions as their own. The Secretary advised that the clause be stricken out.

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In objecting to the provisions of Section 6, Secretary Olney stated that both the English and American methods of arbitration leave out of consideration questions involving national honor and territorial integrity, but the British method allows the disputants to determine, after learning the result, whether or not they will be bound by it, while the American plan binds both parties to abide by the result whatever it may be.

Good Temper on Both Sides

The exceeding good temper displayed by both sides in this controversy increased the confidence that a satisfactory issue, honorable to both parties, would be reached. That there was the best ground for this hope was proven by the speech of Lord Salisbury at the lord mayor's banquet in London, November 9, 1896, and by the additional correspondence soon afterwards published. The most significant words of Lord Salisbury were:

"You are aware that in the discussion had with the United States on behalf of their friends in Venezuela, our question has not been whether there should be arbitration, but whether arbitration should have unrestricted application; and we have always claimed that those who, apart from historic right, had the right which attaches to established settlements, should be excluded from arbitration. Our difficulty for months has been to define the settled districts; and the solution has, I think, come from the suggestion of the Government of the United States, that we should treat our colonial empire as we treat individuals; that the same lapse of time which protects the latter in civic life from having their title questioned, should similarly protect an English colony; but, beyond that, when a lapse could not be claimed, there should be an examination of title, and all the equity demanded in regard thereto should be granted. I do not believe I am using unduly sanguine words when I declare my belief that this has brought the controversy to an end."

Through this maze of diplomacy, the question finally narrowed down to the question of how long must a settler have held a title to a given possession to exempt it from the process of arbitration. The period of fifty years was finally fixed upon as making a claim indisputably valid.

Little Work for the Commission

Inasmuch as the real business of the Commission had been virtually taken out of its hand, it decided, though continuing its labors, not to formulate any decision, in the hope that a friendly and just settlement would render such a decision unnecessary.

Sir Julian Pauncefote returned early in November from a visit to England, bringing with him the treaty, the terms of which were

LORD SALISBURY

signed by him and Secretary Olney on November 12th and were published December 19th. They are as follows:

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First An arbitral tribunal shall be immediately appointed to determine the boundary line between the colony of British Guiana and the republic of Venezuela.

Second The tribunal shall consist of two members nominated by the judges of the Supreme Court of the United States and two members nominated by the judges of the British Supreme Court of justice, and by a fifth jurist selected by the four persons so nominated, or, in the event of their failure to agree within three months of their nomination, selected by his Majesty the King of Sweden and Norway. The person so selected shall be president of the tribunal. The persons nominated by the judges of the Supreme Court of the United States and of the British Supreme Court of justice respectively, may be judges of either of said courts.

Terms of the Treaty

Third The tribunal shall investigate and ascertain the extent of the territories belonging to, or that might lawfully be claimed by, the United Netherlands or by the kingdom of Spain respectively at the time of the acquisition by Great Britain of the colony of British Guiana, and shall determine the boundary line between the colony of British Guiana and the republic of Venezuela.

Fourth In deciding the matters submitted, the arbitrators shall ascertain all the facts which they deem necessary to a decision of the controversy, and shall be governed by the following rules agreed upon by the high contracting parties as rules to be taken as applicable to the case, and by such principles of international law not inconsistent therewith as the arbitrators shall determine to be applicable to the case.

RULES

Rules of the Treaty

(*a*) Adverse holding or prescription during a period of fifty years shall make a good title. The arbitrators may deem exclusive political control of a district as well as actual settlement thereof sufficient to constitute adverse holding, or to make title by prescription.

(*b*) The arbitrators may recognize and give effect to rights and claims on any principles of international law which the arbitrators may deem to be applicable to the case, and which are not in contravention of the foregoing rule.

(*c*) In determining the boundary line, if territory of one party be found by the tribunal to have been at the date of this treaty in the occupation of the subjects or citizens of the other party, such effec

shall be given to such occupation as reason, justice, the principles of international law, and the equities of the case shall, in the opinion of the tribunal, require.

This document, having been signed, was forwarded to President Crespo of Venezuela, who attached his signature early in December. Considerable opposition developed in Venezuela on the ground that she was not to be represented on the commission. This opposition, however, was mainly due to ignorance, and disappeared when the agreement was fully understood. Venezuela wisely decided that she had in the great American republic a friend whom she could safely trust.

Treaty Signed by President Crespo

The Anglo-Venezuelan arbitration treaty was signed by Sir Julian Pauncefote, the British ambassador, and Señor José Andrade, the Venezuelan minister, in the office of Secretary Olney at the State department, on the afternoon of February 2, 1897. Thus terminated a controversy that has lasted nearly a century, and diplomatic relations that had been suspended for ten years were resumed between the two countries.

The signing of this treaty virtually dissolved the Venezuelan boundary commission, though its formal dissolution did not take place until President Brewer was notified by Secretary Olney that the purposes for which it was organized had been made null and void by the signing of the treaty.

In addition to the four articles of the treaty already given, it contained the following additional conditions:

ARTICLE V

Additional Conditions

"The arbitrators shall meet at Paris within sixty days after the delivery of the printed arguments mentioned in Article VIII., and shall proceed impartially and carefully to examine and decide the questions that have or shall be laid before them as herein provided on the part of the Governments of her Britannic Majesty and the United States of Venezuela respectively; provided always that the arbitrators may, if they shall think fit, hold their meetings or any of them at any other place which they may determine.

"All questions considered by the tribunal, including the final decision, shall be determined by a majority of all the arbitrators.

"Each of the high contracting parties shall name one person as its

agent to attend the tribunal and to represent it generally in all matters connected with the tribunal.

ARTICLE VI

"The printed case of each of the two parties, accompanied by the documents, official correspondence, and other evidence on which each relies, shall be delivered in duplicate to each of the arbitrators and to the agent of the other party as soon as may be after the appointment of the members of the tribunal, but within a period not exceeding eight months from the date of the exchange of the ratifications of this treaty.

ARTICLE VII

"Within four months after the delivery on both sides of the printed case either party may in like manner deliver in duplicate to each of the said arbitrators, and to the agent of the other party, a counter case and additional documents, correspondence, and evidence in reply to the case, documents, correspondence, and evidence so presented by the other party.

"If in the case submitted to the arbitrators, either party shall have specified or alluded to any report or document in its own exclusive possession without annexing a copy, such party shall be bound, if the other party thinks proper to apply for it, to furnish that party with a copy thereof, and either party may call upon the other, through the arbitrators, to produce the originals or certified copies of any papers adduced as evidence, giving in each instance notice thereof within thirty days after delivery of the case; and the original or copy so requested shall be delivered as soon as may be, and within a period not exceeding forty days after receipt of notice.

ARTICLE VIII

"It shall be the duty of the agent of each party, within three months after the expiration of the time limited for the delivery of the counter case on both sides, to deliver in duplicate to each of the said arbitrators and to the agent of the other party a printed argument showing the points and referring to the evidence upon which his Government relies, and either party may also support the same before the arbitrators by oral argument of counsel; and the arbitrators may,

if they desire further elucidation with regard to any point, require a written or printed statement or argument or oral argument by counsel upon it; but in such case the other party shall be entitled to reply either orally or in writing, as the case may be.

ARTICLE IX

"The arbitrators may, for any cause deemed by them sufficient, enlarge either of the periods fixed by articles VI., VII., and VIII. by the allowance of thirty days additional.

ARTICLE X

"The decision of the tribunal shall, if possible, be made within three months from the close of the argument on both sides.

"It shall be made in writing and dated, and shall be signed by the arbitrators who may assent to it.

"The decision shall be in duplicate, one copy whereof shall be delivered to the agent of the United States of Venezuela for his Government.

ARTICLE XI

"The arbitrators shall keep an accurate record of their proceedings, and may appoint and employ the necessary officers to assist them.

ARTICLE XII

"Each Government shall pay its own agent and provide for the proper remuneration of the counsel employed by it and of the arbitrators appointed by it or in its behalf, and for the expense of preparing and submitting its case to the tribunal. All other expenses connected with the arbitration shall be defrayed by the two Governments in equal moieties.

ARTICLE XIII

"The high contracting parties engage to consider the result of the proceedings of the Tribunal of Arbitration as a full, perfect, and final settlement of all the questions referred to the arbitrators.

ARTICLE XIV

"The present treaty should be duly ratified by her Britannic

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Majesty and by the President of the United States of Venezuela by and with the approval of the Congress thereof; and the ratifications shall be exchanged in London or in Washington within six months from the date hereof.

"In faith whereof, we, the respective plenipotentiaries, have signed this treaty and have hereunto affixed our seals.

"Done in duplicate at Washington, the second day of February, one thousand eight hundred and ninety-seven.

"JULIAN PAUNCEFOTE,
"JOSÉ ANDRADE."

Presidential Nominees

The Presidential election of 1896 was an extraordinary one. By the 3d of September there were eight tickets in the field. Some of these were duplications, but they were nominated by separate national conventions duly called. In the order of nomination the tickets were as follows:

Prohibitionist—Nominated at Pittsburg, May 27th:
For President—Joshua Levering, of Maryland.
For Vice-President—Hale Johnson, of Illinois.

National Party—Free-Silver Woman-Suffrage offshoot of the regular Prohibitionists, nominated at Pittsburg, May 28th:
For President—Charles E. Bentley, of Nebraska.
For Vice-President—James Haywood Southgate, of North Carolina.

Republican—Nominated at St. Louis, June 18th:
For President—William McKinley, of Ohio.
For Vice-President—Garret Augustus Hobart, of New Jersey.

Socialist-Labor—Nominated at New York, July 4th:
For President—Charles H. Matchett, of New York.
For Vice-President—Matthew Maguire, of New Jersey.

Democratic Party—Nominated at Chicago, July 10th and 11th:
For President—William Jennings Bryan, of Nebraska.
For Vice-President—Arthur Sewall, of Maine.

Silverites—Nominated at St. Louis, July 24th:
For President—William Jennings Bryan, of Nebraska.
For Vice-President—Arthur Sewall, of Maine.

People's Party—Nominated at St. Louis, July 24th and 25th:
For President—William Jennings Bryan, of Nebraska.
For Vice-President—Thomas E. Watson, of Georgia.

National Democratic Party—Nominated at Indianapolis, September 3d:

For President—John McAuley Palmer, of Illinois.

For Vice-President—Simon Bolivar Buckner, of Kentucky.

The Democratic platform demanded the free coinage of silver, while the Republican platform opposed free coinage and insisted on preserving the existing gold standard. The contest lay between these two leading parties of the country.*

The Republican Nominees

For weeks before the national convention in St. Louis, June 16th, the tide set so strongly in favor of William McKinley for President that all doubt disappeared, and his nomination took place on the first ballot, Garret A. Hobart receiving the nomination for Vice-President on the same ballot. When the gold and silver plank was adopted, thirty-three silver delegates, led by Senator Teller of Colorado, formally withdrew from the convention.

The National Democratic Convention was held in Chicago, July 11th. It became apparent before that date that most of the delegates would favor the free coinage of silver, despite the strenuous exertions of the Gold Democrats from the East. President Cleveland, on the 16th of June, issued an appeal to the Democrats against free silver, and said he wished to be only a private in the ranks of the party. The free-silver delegates in the convention would listen to no compromise and concede no favors. Their men were put to the front

* The expression "16 to 1" has been heard probably oftener than it was understood. Director Preston of the Mint, during the campaign of 1896, issued the following statement of the coinage ratio between gold and silver:

"All standard silver dollars coined by the mints of the United States since the passage of the act of January 18, 1837, have been coined in the ratio of 1 to 15.9884—generally called the ratio of 1 to 16, 15.9884 being very nearly 16. Still, to reach accurate results, the former and not the latter figure must be used in calculation. The ratio is obtained in this way: The silver dollar contains 371.25 grains of pure silver and the gold dollar 23.22 grains of pure gold. If you divide 371.25 by 23.22 you will get the ratio of weight between a gold dollar and a silver dollar, that is, 15.9884.

"It is true that to be on a par with gold, silver would (at our ratio) be worth $1.2929. The reason is this: A gold dollar contains 23.22 grains of pure gold. In an ounce, or 480 grains of gold, there are as many dollars as 23.22 is contained times in 480 grains. If you divide 480 by 23.22 you get $20.67, the number of dollars that can be coined out of an ounce of pure gold; in other words, the money equivalent of one ounce of gold or of 15.9884 ounces of silver at the ratio of 1 to 15.9884. Now, if 15.9884 ounces of silver be worth $20.67, one ounce will be worth $1.2929, as you can prove by simple division. The same result is obtained by dividing 480 grains, or one ounce, of silver by 371.25, the number of grains of pure silver in a standard silver dollar, at the ratio of 1 to 15.9884, which gives $1.2929.

"Sixteen ounces of pure silver will coin a little more than one ounce of gold; 15.9884

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both in the temporary and the permanent organization, and on the fifth ballot, William Jennings Bryan, of Nebraska, an eloquent and ardent advocate of free silver, was nominated. The nominee for Vice-President was Arthur Sewall of Maine, who in his letter of acceptance announced his sentiments as opposed to the single gold standard.

Nomination of Bryan

The national convention of the Populists or People's Party was held in St. Louis, July 22d–25th. The convention indorsed Bryan's nomination, but refused to accept that of Sewall, and named instead Thomas E. Watson, of Georgia, an uncompromising Populist. This was done in the face of Bryan's threat not to accept the Populists' nomination unless Sewall was also named. The threat, however, was not carried out.

The capture of the Democratic convention by the silver men caused so many defections that a convention of "Sound Money Democrats" was held in Indianapolis, September 2d, at which appeared delegates from all the States except Idaho, Nevada, Utah, and Wyoming. Without opposition the convention nominated Senator John M. Palmer, of Illinois, for President, and General Simon B. Buckner, of Kentucky, for Vice-President. The platform adopted condemned the Chicago platform as undemocratic and denounced alike the financial doctrine therein set forth and the tariff policy of the Republicans. It favored tariff for revenue only, the single gold standard, a bank currency under governmental supervision, international arbitration, and the maintenance intact of the independence and authority of the Supreme Court.

Nominees of the "Sound-Money Democrats"

The campaign was a stirring one. Had the election taken place in September or October, it is generally believed that Bryan would have been successful. He made a vigorous canvass for himself, travelling rapidly through different parts of the country, and addressing immense crowds several times daily and again at night. Mr. McKinley remained at his home in Canton, Ohio, where he received thousands

ounces of silver will coin exactly the same amount of money as one ounce of gold, that is, $20.67. You can prove this by dividing 15.9884 ounces by 371.25 grains. The operation is as follows: 15.9884 multiplied by 480, divided by 371.25, equals $20.674. It is not true that sixteen ounces of silver will coin only $16.80 at the ratio of 1 to 16.

"As will be seen above, one ounce of silver will coin $1.2929. Multiplying $1.2929 by 16 gives $20.68. You can make the same result in another way: Sixteen ounces troy, or 7,680 grains, divided by 371.25 gives the number of silver dollars that can be coined out of sixteen ounces of silver; 7,680 divided by 371.25 equals $20.68."

of visitors, and made numerous addresses, all of which were in good taste, and served to strengthen the cause for which he stood.

The election on November 3d gave McKinley 271 electoral votes and Bryan 176; majority for McKinley, 95.

On the popular vote, McKinley received 7,101,439, and Bryan 6,503,165; majority for McKinley, 598,274.

Result of the Election

The votes cast for Palmer and Buckner were insignificant, amounting only to 133,554.

While it is a fact that a change of 25,000 votes rightly distributed would have resulted in the election of Mr. Bryan, yet the election was by no means as close as this fact would seem to indicate, for Major McKinley was a majority President for the first time since 1872.

In 1856, the vote of Fremont and Fillmore exceeded that of Buchanan by 386,760, while in 1860 Lincoln had less than forty per cent. of the popular vote. Four years later his plurality over McClellan was 407,342, there being no election of course in the Southern States. In 1868, a number of the Southern States still not participating, Grant's majority over Seymour was 305,458. In 1872, the opposition to Grant went to pieces, and his majority over Greeley was 762,999, several of the unreconstructed States taking no part in the election.

In 1876, Tilden's majority over Hayes was 252,042, with a popular majority of 145,711 over all the other candidates. In 1880 Garfield had a popular majority of 9,464 over Hancock, but the united opposition vote was 311,115 more than Garfield's total. In 1884, Cleveland's plurality over Blaine was 23,005, but it was 317,638 less than the total opposition. It would have required a change of less than 600 votes to have made Blaine President. In 1888, Cleveland was defeated, although he had 94,601 more votes than Harrison, against whom the popular majority was 500,124. In 1892, Cleveland had 379,025 more votes than Harrison, but the combined opposition exceeded the Cleveland vote by 969,205.

Analysis of the Election

The States carried by McKinley contain more than two-thirds of our population and almost three-quarters of our wealth. The victory was of the most decisive character.

When Mr. Cleveland became President for the second time, the Democratic party and Congress were his ardent supporters. When he left the White House, Congress was opposed to him, and his party

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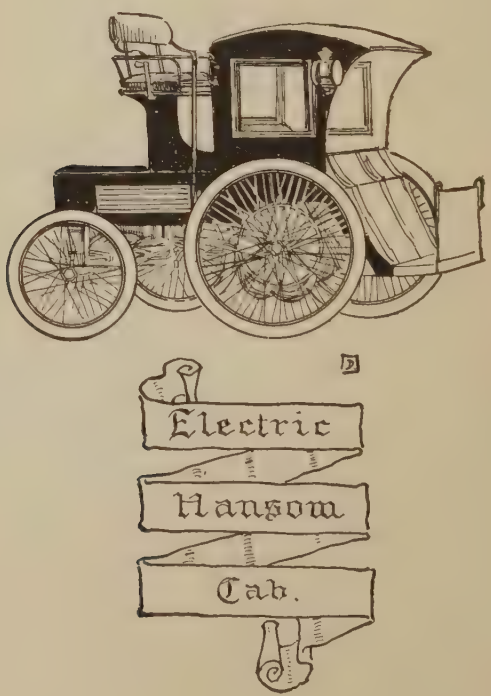
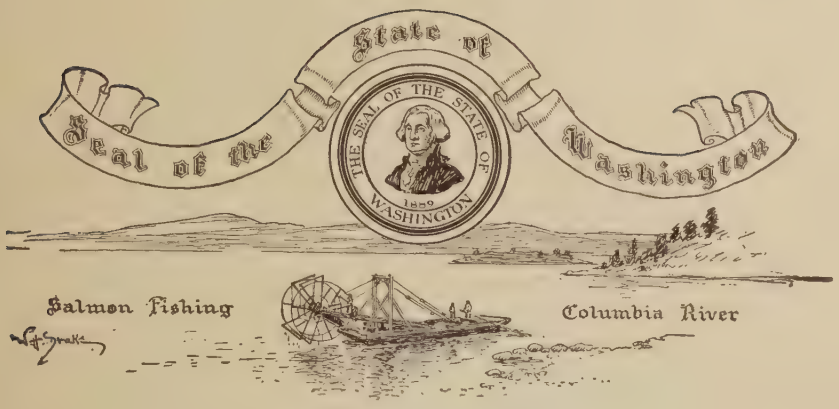
was disorganized. Mr. Cleveland's course was always patriotic, and he did all that was possible to maintain the financial credit of the nation and to uphold the honor and good name of his country at home and abroad. His call for an extra session of Congress was a lusty blow to save the United States from the ruin threatened by the Silver Purchase Law. His first regular message was a powerful plea for sound money, public economy, a wise tariff revision, and a safe and honorable foreign policy. Though his party failed to rally to his support, his loyalty to principle was never shaken, and all right-thinking men will honor the President who, while he made mistakes, as did his predecessors, yet stood firmly against every attack upon the financial honor of the country, and gave his unceasing effort towards preserving peace and the good name of the United States among the nations of the world.

Services of President Cleveland





CHAPTER XCI

McKINLEY'S FIRST ADMINISTRATION—1897–1901

[*Authorities:* Many influential citizens of our republic hoped for the ratification of the Arbitration Treaty negotiated between the English Government and Mr. Cleveland's Secretary of State, Mr. Olney. The author, believing it to be a matter of great importance to both countries, has given it much prominence in this chapter. It has, however, been rejected by our Senate. The principal difficulty in matters of diplomacy between this country and England is that the predominant considerations with statesmen of that country are territorial aggrandizement and commercial supremacy. Questions of equity, ethics, and international law become secondary in the face of these considerations. England is still tainted in her statesmanship with the old feudal instinct to secure by brute force that from the attainment of which she would be debarred by the operation of the laws of political equity. We read much about the isolation of that country from the rest of Europe, and it starts the question whether there is not for nations, as for individuals, a day of reckoning for wrong-doing and tyranny and selfishness.

The author is indebted for much of the history in this chapter to the biographies of the political candidates, official records and documents, Congressman Nelson Dingley, Jr., Chairman of the Ways and Means Committee of the Fifty-fifth Congress, "Current History," and many contemporary publications.]

WILLIAM McKINLEY, twenty-fifth President of the United States, was born at Niles, Trumbull County, O., January 29, 1843, so that he was in his fifty-fifth year, when he assumed his exalted office. His ancestors were Scotch, and were early conspicuous for their valor and devotion to principle. About the middle of the eighteenth century two brothers, James and William, came to this country. James settled in what is now the town of York, in Southern Pennsylvania, where he married and sent his son David to fight under Washington in the War for Independence. Returning to Pennsylvania after the struggle, David lived there until some years after the War of 1812, when he joined the great western tide and

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removed to the country beyond the Ohio River, settling in the region now known as Columbiana County, Ohio. There he founded the "Buckeye" branch of the McKinley clan. He married Mary Rose, whose first child was William, father of the subject of this sketch.

The McKinleys

The elder McKinley remained in Eastern Ohio and was one of the pioneers of the iron business in that region, with foundries at Fairfield, New Wilmington, and other places. To them were born eight children. The house in which the President first saw the light is still standing on one of the streets of Niles. It is a frame structure, two stories high, and the former parlor is now a grocery store. From the vine-covered porch the statesman has made many addresses to the proud citizens of his native town.

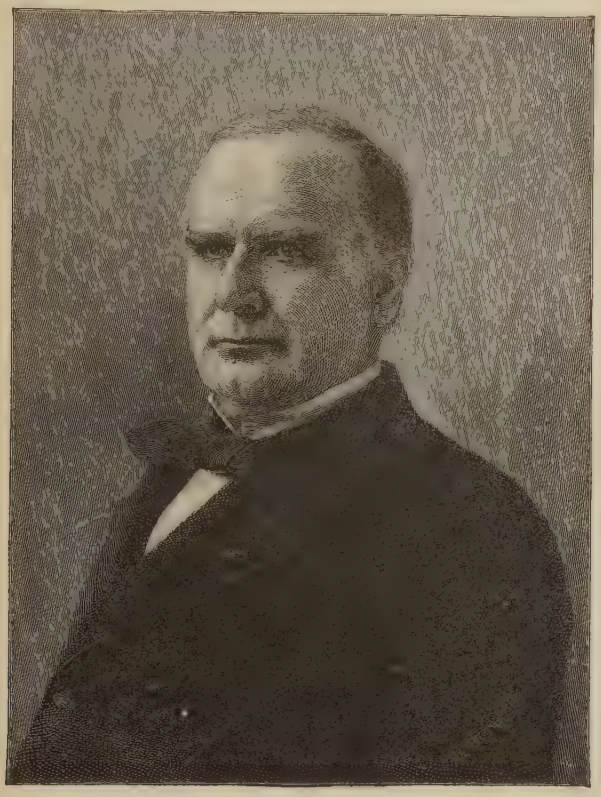
The parents of William McKinley were neither poor nor rich. He knew nothing of grinding poverty nor of affluence. He was observant of mind and robust of body, fond of outdoor sports, and a genial companion. One of the old residents refers to him as a "black-haired, grave-faced, but robust and manly little chap," who attended for a few years the village school at Niles. The parents moved to Poland, in Mahoning, the county between Trumbull and Columbiana, in order that the children might enjoy the advantages of a high school or academy in that town. William showed himself a thorough rather than a showy student, with a leaning towards oratory and argument. He was president for some time of the debating club. It is related that having purchased a gorgeous carpet for the floor of the room in which the stirring debates were held, all the boys sat in their stocking feet at the first meeting, in order not to soil the precious fabric, President McKinley setting the example. The boys were afterwards furnished with slippers knit and presented by the girl members.

Youth of McKinley

McKinley prepared for college, and, at the age of sixteen, was matriculated at Allegheny College, Meadville, Pa., but had no more than fairly started upon his studies when he fell ill and was compelled to return home. Then his father's resources were crippled, and it became necessary for the son partially to support himself. He cheerfully took up teaching in a district school near Poland. His salary was $25 a month, and he was obliged to "board around." Most of the time, however, he lived at home, walking several miles daily to and from school. His purpose was to save

enough money to complete his college education, but another destiny awaited him.

He was eighteen years old, and engaged in his school, when Fort Sumter was fired upon. Among the first to answer the call of President Lincoln for volunteers was young McKinley, who never felt prouder than when General Fremont, after thumping his chest and looking into his bright eyes, said, "You'll do." He was a member



PRESIDENT McKINLEY

of Company E, of the Twenty-third Ohio Regiment, of which W. S. Rosecrans was colonel, Stanley Matthews lieutenant-colonel, and Rutherford B. Hayes major. Thus that famous fighting regiment had the honor of producing two Presidents and a Senator of the United States, afterwards eminent as a Justice of the Supreme Court.

McKinley's Patriotism

It was genuine patriotism that made a soldier of the boy schoolteacher. For fourteen months he carried a musket, attaining the rank

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of sergeant, April 15, 1862. Many years afterwards, when governor of Ohio, he referred to that period in these words:

"I always look back with pleasure upon those fourteen months in which I served in the ranks. They taught me a great deal. I was but a schoolboy when I went into the army, and that first year was a formative period of my life, during which I learned much of men and affairs. I have always been glad that I entered the service as a private and served those months in that capacity."

A Brave Soldier

There was no more popular or braver man in the regiment than he. He was obedient to his superior officers, and a genial and generous comrade. Nor did the regiment have any lack of fighting. Within six weeks after leaving Columbus, the soldiers were in battle at Carnifex Ferry, where they chased the Confederates back and forth through the mountains, were drenched by incessant rains, suffered for food, and met the roughest kind of campaigning. But the fine body stood it admirably, and was soon ordered to Washington, where it was made a part of the Army of the Potomac, then under the command of McClellan.

Antietam ranks as the bloodiest battle of the Civil War. It was there that McKinley conducted himself like a hero, and from which he emerged with a lieutenant's sword by his side. There was never a more deserved promotion. After Antietam, the lieutenant had the hottest and most rapid sort of work in the West Virginia mountains, speedily returning to Pennsylvania and then back again. One day the regiment breakfasted in Pennsylvania, ate dinner in Maryland, and partook of supper in Virginia. The military career of McKinley has thus been summarized:

Military Services of McKinley

On September 24, 1862, he was commissioned second-lieutenant of Company D. Five months afterwards he became first-lieutenant of Company E, and on July 25, 1864, he had risen to be captain of Company G. Every promotion was well earned. However, no sooner had he been commissioned than his value as an officer was recognized, and three months after receiving his first commission he was detailed as aide-de-camp on the staff of Gen. Rutherford B. Hayes. From that time until the close of the war he served continually as a staff officer, being at different times on the staffs of Gens. S. S. Carroll, George Crook, afterwards the famous Indian fighter, and Winfield S. Hancock, the superb—all of these men famous for fighting qualities.

He was breveted major on the recommendation of General Sheridan for distinguished and gallant conduct at Cedar Creek and Fisher's Hill.

With his regiment, or while on staff duty, he fought in West Virginia, in the Army of the Potomac under McClellan, and in the Shenandoah Valley under Sheridan. He was in all the early fights in West Virginia, at South Mountain and Antietam, receiving his shoulder-straps one week after that last-named bloody battle, and exchanging his musket for the sword. His first battle was at Carnifex Ferry, W. Va., September 10, 1861. For four long years he fought in every battle and skirmish, until the very end, doing his whole duty, gathering honors and adding to his fame as a soldier, fearless and without reproach, fighting at Townsend's Ferry, November 6th; at Laurel Hill, November 12th; Camp Creek, May 1, 1862; New River, May 6th; Pack's Ferry, New River, August 6th; in support of Pope's army, August 15th; battle of South Mountain, September 14th; Antietam, September 16th and 17th; Cloyd's Mountain, May 9, 1864; Buffalo Gap, June 6th; Lexington, June 10th; Otter Creek, June 16th; Lynchburg, June 17th; Liberty, June 19th; Buford Gap, June 20th; Salem, June 21st; Sweet Sulphur Springs, June 25th; in the campaign against Early, July 14th to November 28th; skirmish at Cabletown, July 19th; fight at Snicker's Ferry, July 21st; Winchester and Kernstown, July 23d and 24th; Martinsburg, July 25th; Berryville, August 10th; Halltown, August 22d; Berryville, September 3d, where his horse was shot under him; battle of Winchester, September 19th; Fisher's Hill, September 22d; skirmish at New Market, October 7th; Cedar Creek, October 13th; battle of Cedar Creek, October 19th—in all, more than thirty battles and skirmishes—in the very front, from the beginning to the end; from the first shot until the very last—mustered out July 26, 1865, after more than four years of continuous service, never missing a day's duty or a fight. He was but twenty-two years of age even then, yet a veteran of thirty engagements, distinguished among the bravest of the brave in the greatest war the world has ever seen—as a private soldier, knowing how to follow and obey; as an officer, how to lead and command.

In Virginia

A Young Veteran

Honored and breveted by the fiery Sheridan, when, after his ride from Winchester town, he came on the field and found Captain Mc-

Kinley in the storm of the battle calmly rallying the disordered troops and facing them to the front.

Gen. George Crook says: "I have the honor to earnestly recommend Capt. William McKinley, Twenty-Third Ohio Infantry, for appointment to a higher grade than his present rank for bravery, gallantry, soldierly conduct, and distinguished services during the campaigns of West Virginia and the Shenandoah Valley."

Honored by His Superiors

Gen. Philip H. Sheridan, "the whirlwind with spurs," as Hancock so aptly named him, forwarded the recommendation of General Crook with the following indorsement:

"HEADQUARTERS MIDDLE MILITARY DIVISION, February 1, 1865. —Respectfully forwarded to the Adjutant-General of the Army approved. The appointment recommended is well deserved."

The recommendations of Generals Crook and Sheridan were indorsed and approved by Lieutenant-General Grant, and the Private McKinley of 1861 came home with the leaves of a major on his shoulder-straps.

Peace had come, and the young veteran had to decide upon his future course. He would have loved to return to college, but lacked the means. So he took up the study of law in the office of Judge Charles E. Glidden, at Canton, and afterwards entered the well-known law-school at Albany, N. Y. He was graduated from this institution and admitted to the bar in 1867. He began practice in Canton, where in due time he reaped the reward of thorough preparation, brilliant ability, and conscientious devotion to his work. He had shown great talent as a public speaker, and it was inevitable that he should become interested in politics. Stark County, where he opened his office, was considered hopelessly Democratic, so that when McKinley was nominated by the Republicans for district-attorney, it was looked upon as an empty honor. But he threw his whole energies into the canvass, and, to the amazement of everybody except himself, was successful. He was renominated at the end of his term of two years, but failed by a slender vote in a county where the majority had always been overwhelming in the opposite direction.

McKinley's Political Strength

McKinley's inherent strength was so unquestionable that in 1876 he was nominated and easily elected to Congress. Then the Democrats, having possession of the legislature, gerrymandered the State so that, when he was nominated for a second term, it was in a district in which the normal Democratic majority was about eighteen

hundred. Nevertheless, he was elected by thirteen hundred majority, and was returned for a third and a fourth term. The Democrats regained possession of the legislature again in 1884, and once more gerrymandered the State, with the express purpose of keeping McKinley at home. His district was set down as certain to give him an adverse vote by fifteen hundred, but when he ran the fifth time his majority was over two thousand. Again the State was gerrymandered, and this time his opponents succeeded in defeating him, it being the only time such a thing has occurred during his political career.

His only Defeat

McKinley was a member of Congress, therefore, for seven terms covering fourteen years, during which he was noted for his clear grasp of national questions and his strong sympathies with the people. He was naturally interested in all matters relating to the tariff, and his first speech in Congress was in favor of a protective tariff. It was during his last year, 1890, that the famous tariff measure bearing his name was passed.

One of his admirable traits was his loyalty to his friends. Twice he could have received the presidential nomination, but having pledged his word to other candidates, nothing could dissuade him to desert them, even when their candidature was hopeless. It was only fitting, therefore, that the tide, when it did set in for him, did so with a might that was resistless.

It was in 1890 that he met defeat through the gerrymandering of the State. The Republicans nominated him by acclamation for governor, and in one of the most hotly contested elections ever known, he was successful by more than eighty thousand majority. His administration was worthy of the man. His nomination for the Presidency in 1896 has been related in the preceding chapter.

As a Man and Husband

Our notice of President McKinley would be incomplete without a tribute to him as a man and a husband. It is said that once when a clergyman was asked whether he believed himself a truly religious person, he answered: "Ask my wife." On January 25, 1871, Mr. McKinley was married to Ida Saxton, daughter of James Saxton, a banker of Canton. Two daughters were born to them, but both died in their infancy. Since the affliction the mother has been an invalid, sustained by the untiring devotion of her husband. The two continued as tender lovers as during their honeymoon, the reverence and affection of the husband for the wife being equalled only by that for

his mother, who had passed far beyond fourscore when her son was elected to the most exalted office in the gift of his countrymen. Fortunate indeed is that nation who is not forced to elevate at times, as in Europe, the most vicious, depraved, and incompetent of men and women as its rulers, but can select such as are models of integrity, manliness, chivalry, patriotism, honor, and all the virtues that adorn mankind.

The Vice-President

Garret Augustus Hobart was born in Monmouth County, N. J., in 1844, and spent his boyhood amid the breezes of the Altantic, acquiring a sturdy strength and rugged physique that give him a youthful appearance and have stood him well in the active work of his manhood. He received a common-school education, proving himself by far the brightest boy among his classmates. He was graduated from Rutgers College at the age of nineteen, and received the degree of A.M., to which some years later the same college added that of LL.D.

Mr. Hobart studied law, and was admitted to the bar as an attorney in 1864 and as a counsellor in 1869. His brilliant mental qualities, his personal magnetism, and his fearless devotion to principle made him remarkably successful from the first. He had selected Paterson as his home, and in May, 1871, the board of aldermen of that city appointed him city counsel, and the following year he became counsel of the county board of freeholders. In 1872 he was elected to the house of assembly, where his ability attracted state attention. He was returned the following year without the slightest effort on his part, and was unanimously elected speaker. He presided with rare grace and skill, holding that body, which is sometimes disposed to be unruly, in perfect control. He declined a renomination in order to give his attention to his profession, but in 1877 was persuaded to accept the senatorial nomination and was elected by a large majority.

A Political Power

In 1884, Mr. Hobart was the caucus nominee for United States Senator, but his party was in the minority, and the honor went by a small majority to his opponent. He had become a leader among the Republicans, with a reputation that was assuming national proportions. His judgment was rarely at fault, and his aggressiveness is always with him. In 1884 he was selected as a member of the Republican National Committee from New Jersey.

He continued a powerful factor in the politics of his native State,

A MAN-OF-WAR IN ACTION

and did more than any other man to secure the nomination and election of his intimate friend, the able John W. Griggs, as governor of the State in 1895, by one of the largest majorities ever given to a

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GARRET AUGUSTUS HOBART

gubernatorial candidate. Mr. Hobart assumed the duties of chairman of the executive committee, and worked unflaggingly until Mr. Griggs was elected by nearly thirty thousand plurality.

Mr. Hobart was one of the most popular and brilliant Vice-Presidents that ever presided over the United States Senate. He won the respect of the members of all parties by his impartiality, unvary-

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ing courtesy, ability, and fairness. His devotion to his duties told seriously upon his health, which gradually failed until he succumbed at his home in Paterson, N. J., November 21, 1899. The President, between whom and Mr. Hobart there was a strong mutual regard, issued a proclamation in which, after rendering a touching tribute to the deceased statesman, he directed that on the day of the funeral the legislative offices of the United States should be closed, the national flag displayed at half-mast, and that our foreign representatives should pay proper tribute to the illustrious dead for a period of thirty days.

Death of Vice-President Hobart

Among the many tributes called forth the following is from Attorney-General Griggs, Mr. Hobart's intimate friend:

"He had the clearest intellect, the largest business capacity, the keenest intuition of any man I ever knew; but more remarkable than these qualities were his traits of modesty, amounting almost to diffidence; of large-handed generosity unostentatiously bestowed; of unselfish public spirit in all affairs of town or State or country, and, finest of all, a great heart that never beat except with love and loyalty and sympathy for all the world."

Every American must feel an interest in the men that have held the highest office in the gift of the people. History tells what each one did for his country, but very little about their private lives. All were great men, honest and patriotic, and no country in the world can present a line of rulers of so exalted a character as the men that have been Presidents of the United States. The readers of this History will be glad to learn about the personality of the twenty-four persons that, down to the present time, have sat in the Presidential chair.

Interesting Facts

First of all we give some isolated but interesting facts concerning them.

Washington was older than any of his successors. John Quincy Adams was the first to break this rule. Although two years younger than his successor, Jackson, he was not followed by any other older man. General Harrison was nine years older than Van Buren, his predecessor, and no man born before either of them was afterwards President. General Taylor was six years older than Tyler and eleven years older than Polk, whom he succeeded. Buchanan was nine years older than Fillmore and thirteen years older than Pierce, his predecessors. Lincoln was one year younger than Johnson:

THE CAPITOL, WASHINGTON, D. C.

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Grant and Hayes were born in the same year; Arthur was a year older than Garfield, and Cleveland was four years younger than Harrison.

Six Presidents were born in Virginia, two in Massachusetts, two in North Carolina, three in New York, five in Ohio, and one each in New Jersey, Kentucky, New Hampshire, Vermont, Pennsylvania, and Tennessee. Four died in Virginia, five in New York, four in Washington city, three in Tennessee, and one each in Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Pennsylvania, Ohio, and New Jersey. Two are still living.

Presidential Birthplaces

Four Presidents were named James, three John, two Andrew, two William, and one George, Thomas, Martin, Zachary, Millard, Franklin, Abraham, Ulysses, Rutherford, Chester, Grover, and Benjamin. Fourteen had no middle names. The only President named in honor of a President was Andrew Johnson, named for Andrew Jackson.

Two Presidents were born in January, and one each in July, August, and September; three in February, October, and November, two in December, four in March and April, and none in May or June. Three have died in January and two in April; one in each of the following months: February, March, September, October, and December. Four have died in June and seven in July; none has died in May, August, or November. May is the only month in which no President has died or was born. Grant and Hayes were the only two born in the same year, and the elder Adams and Jefferson the only two that died in the same year, their deaths occurring on the same day. Monroe's death and Garfield's birth took place in the same year.

As a rule, few ex-Presidents were alive at the conclusion of the terms of their immediate successors. At the time of Washington's death, however, the living men that had been President, or were destined to become such, were John Adams, Jefferson, Madison, Monroe, John Quincy Adams, Jackson, Van Buren, Harrison, Tyler, Polk, Taylor, and Buchanan.

Ages of the Presidents

The last President born in the eighteenth century was Buchanan, while Pierce was the first born in the nineteenth, although he preceded Buchanan in office. Eleven reached or passed threescore and ten; John Adams (91) attained the most advanced age; Madison (85), Jefferson (83), and Van Buren (80) were the other fourscore men; Monroe, Adams, Jr., Jackson, Tyler, Fillmore, Buchanan, and

Hayes passed the threescore point; Garfield (50) was the youngest to die. W. H. Harrison (68) was the oldest at the time of his inauguration; Buchanan was 66, and Taylor 65; John Adams and Jackson were 62, and all the others were in the 50's, except Pierce (49), Grant (47), and Cleveland (49), Grant being the youngest man ever elected President. W. H. Harrison served the shortest time, one month; Taylor served sixteen months and four days, Lincoln one month and eleven days of his second term, and Garfield served six months and fifteen days. Jefferson, Madison, Monroe, Jackson, Lincoln, Grant, and Cleveland were twice elected, Cleveland and Jefferson making three trials for their two elections. Two Presidents were assassinated and two died in office. All were married men at the time of their election excepting Van Buren, Buchanan, and Cleveland. Van Buren was the only President to die at his birthplace, and none died outside of this country. Three died on the 4th of July. The son of one President became President, while the honor fell to the grandson of another. What a unique distinction was that of John Scott Harrison, whose father and son each became President!

Terms of Office

When John Quincy Adams died in 1848, he had seen all the preceding Presidents, while every one that succeeded him down to the close of the nineteenth century was then living.

Washington was the only President to die in the eighteenth century. Twenty-six and a half years—the longest interval that has yet occurred—passed before there was another death, the next longest interval being between 1849 and 1862.

Washington, during his younger days, was a thorough sportsman, but seems to have abandoned the rod and gun after the opening of the Revolution. John Quincy Adams, next to Benjamin Franklin, was the most famous swimmer among public men. He was fond of long, brisk walks before the sun rose, rarely omitting them in summer or winter. All the earlier Presidents were horseback riders, Washington undoubtedly being the most skilful, as he was the most powerful and best all-round athlete. In his younger days there was no more enthusiastic fox-rider in the country.

Washington the best Athlete

Madison was no sportsman, finding his greatest solace in his books. Jefferson was a rider, and, besides being a good student, was always fond of exercise. Monroe was often in the saddle until a short time before his death. Arthur was a famous fisherman, and

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Harrison's skill as a duck-shooter is well known. Cleveland is also fond of the rod and gun, and like Harrison has proved himself an expert shot.

Jefferson, like Washington and most of the other Southern Presidents, retired from office to his plantation. There he lived long enough to become bankrupt, chiefly through lavish hospitality, and to be founder and first rector of the University of Virginia, a matter he thought worthy to be recorded on his tombstone.

The ex-Presidents

John Quincy Adams was the first ex-President to return to active participation in national politics, and the only one to serve many successive terms in Congress, or, indeed, to be chosen to the lower House. His father never outlived the general unpopularity under which he retired from office. Andrew Johnson was the only ex-President to be elected to the United States Senate, and he died in the year of his election. Monroe and Madison both went back to their plantations, and both were members of the Convention of 1829, to amend the constitution of Virginia. Jackson lived in retirement at the Hermitage for eight years, and meanwhile joined the Presbyterian Church.

Van Buren, Fillmore, and Cleveland are the only ex-Presidents to be nominated for the Presidency, and Cleveland was the only one to be elected. Van Buren, as Free Soil candidate in 1848, carried no State, but received nearly three hundred thousand votes, and Fillmore, as candidate of the American party in 1856, carried the State of Maryland. Tyler alone of ex-Presidents was an officer of the Confederate Government. He died at Richmond in 1862 while serving as a member of the Confederate Congress. Polk lived three months in retirement at Nashville after leaving the Presidency, and Buchanan at his farm of Wheatland, near Lancaster, Pa., lived seven years, wrote a history of his administration, and saw a great deal of his friends.

Our Last Presidents

General Grant left the Presidency to receive the plaudits of mankind in a trip around the world, and lived long enough to be drawn into unfortunate business speculations. Arthur retired from the Presidency to the practice of law and a speedy death. Mr. Cleveland went to the practice of law and a third nomination, after which he made his home at Princeton, N. J. At the commencement of Princeton University, in June, 1897, Mr. Cleveland was honored with the degree of LL. D. President McKinley received a similar dis-

tinction from the Western Reserve University, Ohio, June 23, of the same year. Mr. Hayes lived the quiet life of a retired farmer until his death in January, 1893.*

The personality of the ladies who have presided in the White House is as interesting as that of the Presidents themselves. All, without exception, have honored their sex and adorned American womanhood. No whisper of scandal has ever been heard against those names, and the atmosphere of the "Court of the Republic" has been as pure as that which cools our mountain-tops. Beauty, virtue, wit, and all that commands the respect and admiration of mankind have characterized that line of renowned women whose memory is among the precious heirlooms of our common country.

The Ladies of the White House

Martha Washington never presided at the White House, because the building bearing that name was not erected until after her husband's death. The present executive mansion, however, was named in honor of her private residence, so that in a figurative sense she was the first lady to grace the White House. She was born in the same year with her illustrious husband, her name being Martha Dandridge, of Virginia. At the age of nineteen she married Daniel Parke Custis, by whom she had four children. She inherited the vast estates of her husband, and was one of the wealthiest women in the Old Dominion. She was a widow of rare beauty and accomplishments, when in 1759 she became the wife of Washington. Her wealth and fine taste enabled her to entertain in magnificent style in New York, the capital of the country, during her husband's administration. She fully shared that great man's fervent patriotism and

Martha Washington

* Among the nicknames applied to the Presidents were the following: Washington, the Father of his Country, Americus Fabius, the Cincinnatus of the West, Atlas of America, Deliverer of America, Savior of his Country, and by his political opponents, Stepfather of his Country; John Adams, Colossus of Independence; Jefferson, Sage of Monticello, and Long Tom; Madison, Father of the Constitution; Monroe, Last Cocked Hat; J. Q. Adams, Old Man Eloquent; Jackson, Sharp Knife, Old Hickory, Hero of New Orleans; Van Buren, Little Magician, Wizard of Kinderhook, King Martin the First, Whiskey Van; W. H. Harrison, Old Tippecanoe, Old Tip, Washington of the West; Tyler, Young Hickory, Accidental President; Polk, Young Hickory; Taylor, Rough and Ready, Old Zach, Old Buena Vista; Fillmore, the American Louis Philippe; Pierce, Purse, Buchanan, Old Public Functionary, Old Buck; Lincoln, Honest Old Abe, Uncle Abe, Father Abraham, Railsplitter; Johnson, Sir Veto; Grant, Unconditional Surrender, Hero of Appomattox, American Cæsar; Hayes, President de Facto; Garfield, the Martyr President; Arthur, Our Chet; Cleveland, the Man of Destiny, Grover; B. Harrison, Son of his Grandfather; McKinley, Advance Agent of Prosperity.

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entered into all his feelings during the days that tried men's souls, undergoing many hardships and privations for the cause of independence. Both she and Washington were fond of pomp and ceremony, and their stately receptions were as enjoyable to the one as to the other. Mount Vernon was noted even on the other side of the Atlantic for its splendid hospitality, and many of the most distinguished men and women were entertained there. Martha Washington was an excellent housekeeper, and gave her husband great assistance in the management of their immense estate. She died in 1802.

Abigail Adams

Abigail Adams was the daughter of Rev. William Smith, of Weymouth, Mass., and was born in 1744. At the age of twenty she became the wife of John Adams, the second President of the United States. She possessed great strength of character, strong sense, and fervid patriotism. While her husband was President, the capital was removed to Washington, which was then a straggling town, mostly built in a swamp. The White House was only half finished, and she held her receptions in the room afterwards used as the library. She was as fond of ceremony as Martha Washington, and was an invaluable companion to her husband. Her letters to him, published in 1848, are of historic importance, and attest her remarkable mental powers. She died in 1818, eight years before her husband.

Martha Wayles Jefferson

Martha Wayles Jefferson, born in Virginia, was the widow of Bathurst Skelton, when she became the wife of Thomas Jefferson in 1772. She was highly educated, very beautiful, and a devoted wife, but she died in 1782, twenty years before Jefferson became President. During his two terms it may be said the White House was without a lady. His daughters, Mrs. Randolph and Mrs. Eppes, visited it only twice, though occasionally Mrs. Madison officiated. Mrs. Eppes was at the White House when her child was born, it being the first birth in that historical structure. Mrs. Randolph was fitted in every respect to preside as the hostess of the executive mansion, but the demands of her family forbade.

"Dolly" Paine Madison

Dorothy Paine Madison was born in 1772 and became the wife of John Todd, a Quaker lawyer of Philadelphia. She married Madison in 1794, and was one of the most popular ladies that have presided in the White House. She may not have been as elegant in some respects as her predecessors, but she possessed great tact and wit, and seemed never to forget a face. She bubbled over with good nature, cared little for ceremony, was fond of the society of young people,

and "Dolly Madison" was well liked by every one. She died in 1849.

Mrs. Monroe

Elizabeth Kortright Monroe was born in 1768 and married Monroe in 1786. She was tall, dignified, highly educated, and the opposite in manner to Mrs. Madison. A great deal of her life had been spent abroad, and she was ceremonious and severe in her social principles. She returned no calls and required full dress. It was said of her that she was "an elegant and accomplished woman, with a dignity of manner that peculiarly fitted her for her station." She died suddenly in 1830, one year before the death of her husband.

Mrs. J. Q. Adams

Louisa Catherine, wife of John Quincy Adams, was born and educated in London, where she was married at the age of twenty-two. She was very accomplished, and possessed considerable beauty. She spent the first part of her married life with her husband at the court of Berlin and afterwards at the Russian court. Her health was declining when she entered the White House, and her life there was quiet and uneventful.

Mrs. Donelson and Jackson

The wife of Andrew Jackson died just before his inauguration, and her nieces, Mrs. Andrew Donelson and Mrs. Andrew Jackson, Jr., wife of the general's adopted son, acted in the place of the departed one. The four children of Mrs. Donelson were all born in the White House.

Mrs. Van Buren

Like Jefferson, Van Buren had been a widower for twenty years when he became President. During his term, Angelica, wife of John, his eldest son, presided with tact and good taste at the White House. William Henry Harrison died within one month after his inauguration, and before his wife had completed her preparations for occupying the executive mansion.

Mrs. Tyler

Letitia C. Tyler was born in 1790 and married President Tyler in 1813. Her health became delicate and she died in 1842, soon after coming to Washington. For some time afterwards, Mrs. Robert Tyler, the daughter-in-law, presided at the White House. In 1844 President Tyler married Miss Julia Gardner, who was born in 1824 and died in 1888. She reigned brilliantly for eight months, when the term of her husband came to an end.

Mrs. Polk

Sarah Childress Polk was born in 1803 and married James K. Polk in 1824. She was a favorite in Washington society, very graceful and accomplished. She was a strict member of the Presbyterian Church, banished dancing from the White House, and allowed

no refreshments at the Presidential receptions, but retained her popularity to the end. She lived to a great age, not passing away until 1891.

The wife of President Taylor went to the White House with extreme reluctance. The stormy military life of her husband had kept them apart for so many years that her dearest wish was that what remained to them of life should be spent together in the quiet of their home. The election of General Taylor destroyed this dream, and she gave over to Mrs. Major Bliss the charge of the receptions, dinners, and ceremonies expected from the wife of the President, whose death brought Mrs. Abigail Powers Fillmore to the White House. She had been a teacher for several years before and after her marriage to Mr. Fillmore, which took place when she was twenty-seven years old. She was social and accomplished, but suffered so much from lameness that she resigned her place, so far as she could, to her young daughter.

Mrs. Bliss and Fillmore

When President Pierce and his wife were on their way to Washington, their little boy was killed before their eyes in a railway accident. The mother never recovered from the shock. She was the daughter of President Appleton, of Bowdoin College, and had poetic tastes, with slight interest in social and political affairs. Her profound grief commanded the sympathy of every one, and she was pronounced one of the most perfect ladies of all that had graced the White House.

Mrs. Pierce

James Buchanan was the first and only bachelor President thus far of the United States. His niece, Harriet Lane, presided as hostess during his term. She was tall, finely featured, with a commanding presence and beautiful complexion, and was greatly admired. Her reign was a gay and vivacious one, though, when it ended, the fires of the great civil war had already been kindled.

Miss Lane

Mary Todd Lincoln, born in 1818, was twenty-four years old when she married Abraham Lincoln in 1842. She was a cheerful, kind-hearted lady, but the awful death of her husband and the loss of her three sons unsettled her mind. She peacefully passed away in 1882.

Mrs. Lincoln

Miss Eliza McCardle was born in 1810, and when sixteen years old married Andrew Johnson, who himself was barely eighteen years of age, and still a tailor's apprentice. He could hardly write his name, but he studied hard under her instruction until his knowledge surpassed hers. No wife could have been more helpful than she

Mrs. Johnson

THE WHITE HOUSE, WASHINGTON, D. C.

When the strange mutations of politics placed her in the White House, her health was so broken that she was unequal to the task of acting as hostess. Consequently, the duties devolved upon her daughters, Mrs. Martha Patterson, wife of Senator Patterson, of Tennessee, and Mrs. Stover, a widow, both of whom displayed tact, dignity, and ability. Mrs. Johnson died in 1876, one year after her husband.

Mrs. Grant

Julia Dent Grant was born in 1826 and married General Grant in 1848. She was well educated, and proved an admirable wife and hostess of the White House, which became the scene of many magnificent entertainments. One of the most memorable occasions was the marriage, May 21, 1874, of General Grant's only daughter, Nellie, to Algernon Sartoris, of Hampshire, England, who has since died. The wedding was the most brilliant ever seen in Washington.

Mrs. Hayes

Lucy Ware Webb Hayes married President Hayes in 1852, and was widely known for her devotion to the soldiers wounded in the Civil War. Her experience during her husband's three terms as governor of Ohio qualified her perfectly to preside at the White House, which she did with great grace and dignity. She was gentle, refined, and a devout Christian, laboring untiringly in behalf of temperance and other good causes.

Mrs. Garfield

Miss Lucretia Rudolph was born in 1832 and married James A. Garfield in 1858, when he became president of Hiram College, in which both had been students. She possessed fine accomplishments, but hardly was she called to preside at the White House when her life was darkened by the tragedy that shocked the civilized world. During the President's long suffering from his mortal wound, she was the most untiring of all the attendants at his bedside.

Mrs. McElroy

President Arthur was a widower when elected President, and the duties of hostess were never performed more gracefully than by his sister, Mrs. McElroy.

Mrs. Cleveland

From 1885 to 1886 of President Cleveland's first term, his sister, Miss Rose Cleveland, was the lady of the White House. She was a teacher and author, born in 1846, and her brief reign was worthy of her predecessors. The President was married June 2, 1886, to Frances Folsom, born in 1864. Excepting Dolly Madison, she was the youngest mistress of the White House, whose hospitalities she dispensed with a sweetness, grace, and tact that could not be surpassed.

Caroline Lavinia Scott married Benjamin Harrison in 1854, and was his companion and helper in adversity, as well as the sharer of his prosperity. She was highly educated, and devoted her life to charitable and church work. None was more respected for her grace and true womanliness. Her health failed, and after a lingering illness she died, November 1, 1892.

Mrs. McKinley

Ida Saxton is the daughter of James A. Saxton, who was a prominent business man and banker of Canton, Ohio. She was educated at Cleveland and at Media, Pa. At the close of her school days she made an extended tour in Europe, returning home in 1869. She and Mr. McKinley were married, January 15, 1871, in the Presbyterian church of Canton, of which she is a member. The baby born to them on Christmas Day, 1871, died a few months before the birth of her second child, followed soon by the death of Mrs. McKinley's mother. This affliction, coupled with a physical ailment, made Mrs. McKinley a permanent invalid, and tinged her life with a sorrow which will never be entirely lifted.

When Mr. McKinley was in Congress, he and his wife lived quietly at a hotel. Their life was an ideal one of mutual faith and tender affection. They were as devoted lovers to the end as when the Canton beauty was won by the manly young war veteran, rising politician and statesman of the Buckeye State.

Until their removal to Washington, the couple occupied the old Saxton homestead at Canton. Mrs. McKinley was very attractive in appearance, with her deep blue eyes, transparent complexion, oval face, surmounted by brown, wavy curls, and her youthful and benignant expression. She was her husband's inspiration and had always been throughout their married life, and he had unbounded faith in her judgment. When he was first elected governor, the small daughter of a family who knew him very well, and to whom he had always been known as "Major McKinley," asked: "And what will Mrs. McKinley be—governess?" Upon this being told to the Major and his wife, they laughed heartily, and he said: "It reminds me of the old story of that other governor, whose notoriously ill-tempered wife, upon hearing of her husband's election, wanted to know what she would be. 'Just the same old termagant that you've always been,' said the governor." "But," cried Mrs. McKinley, "surely you don't mean——" "Yes, my dear, I do," interrupted the Major, turning to her affectionately. "For you'll be just what

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you always have been, too—the dearest, sweetest, truest helpmate a man could have to comfort him."

Thursday, March 4, 1897, was clear, sunshiny, with a blue sky—an ideal day in every respect. The scene at Washington was as brilliant as any that had attended preceding inaugurations. The capital was crowded with tens of thousands of cheering visitors, and the ceremonies were of the most striking character. There were more regular army men in the parade than at any previous inauguration, and it was, therefore, superior to all others. Every branch of the army was represented. The scene in the Senate was of dazzling splendor, the distinguished representatives of foreign countries appearing in gorgeous raiment, while the ceremonies as a whole were not lacking in a single feature that could add to their impressiveness.

The Inauguration

The President's address was comparatively brief, and announced as his guiding principles a rigid economy in government expenditures, a debt-paying instead of a debt-contracting management of our finances, a revenue sufficient to the public needs and mainly from a protective tariff on imports, the revival of Secretary Blaine's reciprocity policy, the building up of American commerce, the protection of American citizens, and the cultivation of good feeling between the North and the South.

The Presidential Cabinet

President McKinley selected an able and representative Cabinet, consisting of Senator John Sherman, of Ohio, Secretary of State; Lyman J. Gage, of Illinois, Secretary of the Treasury; Gen. Russell A. Alger, of Michigan, Secretary of War; Judge Joseph McKenna, of California, Attorney-General; Ex-Gov. John D. Long, of Massachusetts, Secretary of the Navy; Ex-Congressman James Wilson, of Iowa, Secretary of Agriculture; James A. Gary, of Maryland, Postmaster-General, and Cornelius Bliss, of New York, Secretary of the Interior.

In the history of the Venezuelan dispute more than one reference was made to the general movement in Great Britain and this country in favor of international arbitration. The current has set so strongly in that direction that the perfection of such a scheme may be considered one of the certainties of the near future.

The correspondence between the British premier and Secretary Olney leaves no doubt that both agreed as to the necessity for some understanding by which war between the nations is rendered impossible except when the differences concern territorial integrity or

A BATTERY ON DRILL. FROM A PHOTOGRAPH IN CIVIL WAR-TIME

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PRESIDENT McKINLEY'S FIRST CABINET

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national honor. Naturally, there were differences of views between the Marquis of Salisbury and Secretary Olney as to the scope of the proposed treaty, but when two such men are united in the attainment of one great object, they are certain to find common ground upon which to stand. On the 11th of January, 1897, the Anglo-American General Arbitration Treaty was signed by Richard Olney, Secretary of State, representing the United States, and Sir Julian Pauncefote, British ambassador at Washington. It was immediately transmitted to the Senate, accompanied by the following message:

The Arbitration Treaty

"TO THE SENATE: I transmit herewith a treaty for the arbitration of all matters in difference between the United States and Great Britain. The provisions of the treaty are the result of long and patient deliberation, and represent concessions made by each party, for the sake of agreement upon the general scheme. Though the result reached may not meet the views of the advocates of immediate, unlimited, and irrevocable arbitration of all international controversies, it is, nevertheless, confidently believed that the treaty cannot fail to be everywhere recognized as making a long step in the right direction, and as embodying a practical working plan by which disputes between the two countries will reach a peaceful adjustment as matter of course and in ordinary routine. In the initiation of such an important movement it must be expected that some of its features will assume a tentative character, looking to a further advance; and yet it is apparent that the treaty which has been formulated not only makes war between the parties to it a remote possibility, but precludes those fears and rumors of war which of themselves too often assume the proportions of a national disaster.

"It is eminently fitting as well as fortunate that the attempt to accomplish results so beneficial should be initiated by kindred peoples, speaking the same tongue, and joined together by all the ties of common traditions, common institutions, and common aspirations. The experiment of substituting civilized methods for brute force as the means of settling international questions of right will thus be tried under the happiest auspices. The success ought not to be doubtful, and the fact that its ultimate ensuing benefits are not likely to be limited to the two countries immediately concerned should cause it to be promoted all the more eagerly. The example set and the lesson furnished by the successful operation of this

treaty are sure to be felt and taken to heart sooner or later by other nations, and will thus mark the beginning of a new epoch in civilization.

"Profoundly impressed as I am, therefore, by the promise of transcendent good which this treaty affords, I do not hesitate to accompany its transmission with an expression of my earnest hope that it may commend itself to the favorable consideration of the Senate.

"GROVER CLEVELAND.

"EXECUTIVE MANSION, January 11, 1897."

The following is a summary of the provisions of the treaty:

The preamble expresses the desire of the Government of Great Britain and the United States to consolidate the relations of amity happily existing between them, and to consecrate by treaty the principle of international arbitration.

The parties agree to arbitrate, subject to the treaty, all questions in difference which they may fail to adjust themselves by diplomatic negotiations.

Provisions of the Treaty

All pecuniary claims or groups of claims which in the aggregate do not exceed £100,000 in amount, and do not involve the determination of territorial claims, shall be dealt with by an arbitral tribunal consisting of three persons. Two of them shall be jurists of repute, one being selected by each Government. The third shall be an umpire, and shall be selected by these two within two months of their nomination. If they fail to agree upon the umpire within the allotted time, he shall be selected by agreement between the members of the Supreme Court of the United States and of the privy council of Great Britain, each acting by a majority. In case they do not nominate within three months, King Oscar of Sweden and Norway shall select the third arbitrator. The person so selected shall be president of the tribunal. A majority vote shall decide questions.

If, however, pecuniary claims exceeding £100,000 in amount are involved, the decision of this court must be unanimous in order to be final. In case it is not unanimous, either party may demand within six months a review of the award. In such a case a new tribunal is to be selected consisting of five members. Two of them shall be selected by each Government; and the fifth, who is to be president of the tribunal, shall be chosen in the manner prescribed

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for the selection of an umpire of the smaller tribunal. A majority vote of this tribunal shall be final.

When a controversy involving territorial claims arises, the question shall be submitted to a tribunal of six members. Three of them shall be judges of the Supreme Court or the circuit courts of the United States, and they shall be selected by the President of the United States. Three of them shall be members of the Supreme Court of justice, or of the judicial committee of the Privy Council of Great Britain, and shall be selected by the Queen. Their award by a majority of not less than five to one shall be final. If there is

GREATER NEW YORK.—VIEW FROM THE HARBOR SHOWING THE BATTERY AND LOWER PART OF THE CITY

less than the prescribed majority, the award shall also be final unless protested within three months. In such case, or when the vote is evenly divided, no recourse shall be had to hostile measures until the mediation of one or more friendly powers shall have been invited by one or the other party.

If the question involved concerns a State or Territory of the United States, the President may appoint a judicial officer of that State or Territory as one of the arbitrators. Similarly, her Majesty may appoint a colonial judicial officer when the question involves one of her colonies.

Territorial claims shall include all claims to territory, and all other claims involving questions of servitude, rights of navigation, access to fisheries, and all rights and interests necessary to control the enjoyment of either's territory.

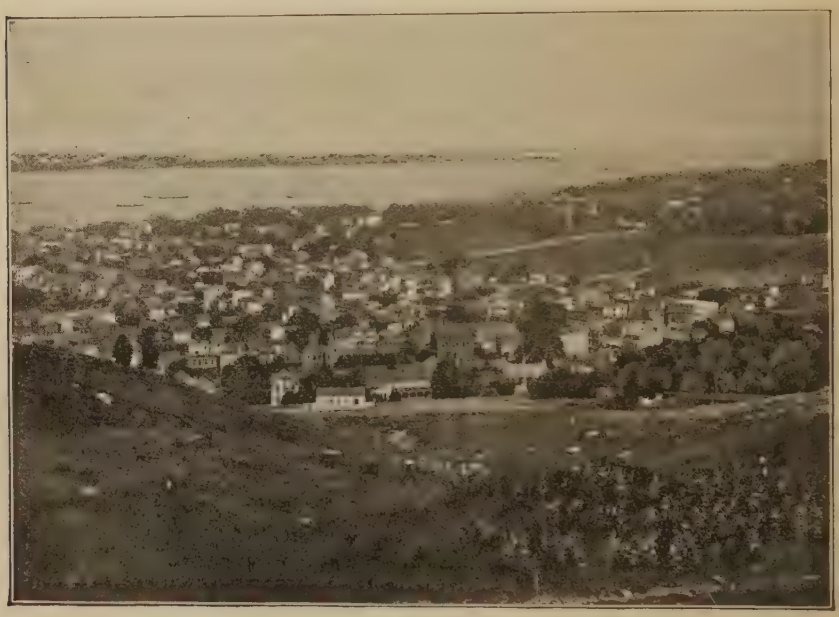
GREATER NEW YORK.—Showing North River Front and Down-Town Buildings

A decision shall be rendered, if possible, within three months of the close of the arguments.

The treaty shall remain in force for five years from the date it becomes operative, and for one year from the date when either party shall have notified the other of its wish to terminate it.

The treaty shall be ratified by the President and the Queen.

This important step towards international arbitration was welcomed with the utmost pleasure on both sides of the Atlantic. Diplomacy,



GREATER NEW YORK.—VIEW FROM STATEN ISLAND, SHOWING THE NARROWS AND LONG ISLAND BEYOND

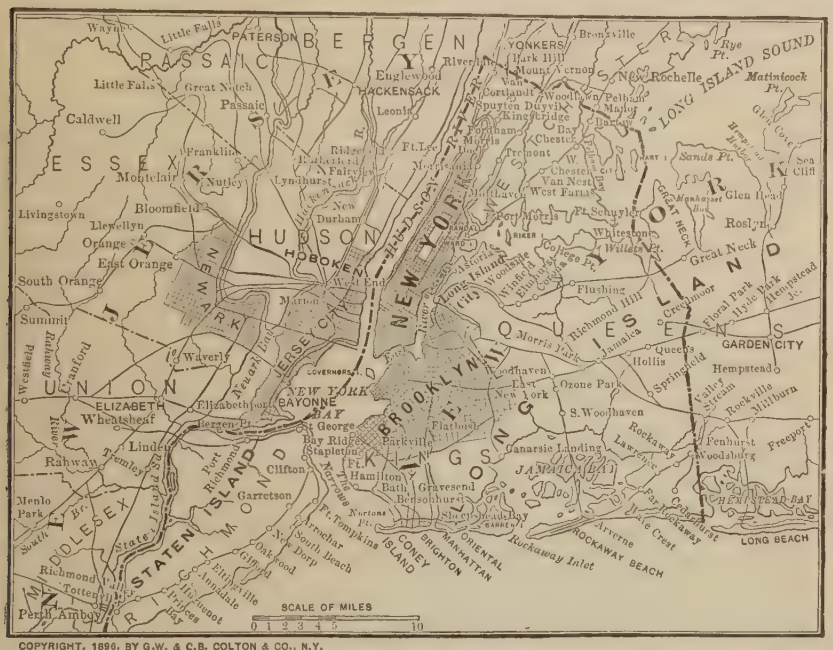
however, is the deepest of all games, and there was misgiving among many of our statesmen that England's real aim was to secure the moral if not material aid of the United States in the ever-present danger of complications with Continental powers. The Senate Committee on Foreign Relations met on January 30th, and agreed upon a report for submission to the Senate.

Amendments to the Treaty

The most important amendment was that which added the following words to Article I.: "But no question which affects the foreign or domestic policy of either of the high contracting parties or the relations of either with any other state or power, by treaty or otherwise, shall be subject to arbitration under this treaty except by a

special agreement." This amendment it was believed covered the Monroe Doctrine and the Nicaragua Canal, for the completion of which steps have recently been taken.

A second amendment strikes out all reference to his Majesty, the King of Sweden and Norway, as the umpire in case the court fails to agree upon an umpire in accordance with the provisions of Article III. and Article V. Another provided that if at any time before the close of a hearing on any matter, except territorial claims, either party declares that the decision of a disputed question excluded ex-



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GREATER NEW YORK AND VICINITY *

cept by special agreement is involved, the jurisdiction of the tribunal shall cease. The feeling grew that the utmost care and deliberation should precede the ratification of this treaty by the Senate, and it remained officially unacted upon at the close of Cleveland's administration. Meanwhile, as an evidence of the widespread favor with which international arbitration is regarded, Senator Knute Nelson, on the 6th of April, presented a memorable petition to the Senate for its favorable action upon the treaty. The mayors of fifty cities, more than four hundred

Sentiment in Favor of the Treaty

* The area covered by Greater New York is indicated by the heavy dotted lines.

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newspapers, the presidents of chambers of commerce of fifty-four leading cities, bishops and archbishops, and leading men joined in the appeal for the Senate's support of the measure. Notwithstanding these indications of popular approval, the Committee on Foreign Relations so amended it as to destroy its value, and the Senate rejected it on May 5, 1897.

Defeat of the Treaty

An event of national importance was the creation in 1897 of what is popularly known as "Greater New York." The question of uniting under one government the metropolis and the neighboring outlying cities had been one of interest for a number of years previous. In 1890, the legislature appointed a commission to consider the subject and report to that body. In 1894, after a discussion extending over three years, the legislature provided for a referendum, the verdict of which was strongly in favor of the union of the various cities named.

Accordingly, after much consideration, a bill was framed, passed both branches of the legislature by large majorities in February, 1897, and promptly received the signatures of Mayors Wurster of Brooklyn and Gleason of Long Island City. Mayor Strong of New York vetoed the bill, whereupon the legislature repassed it, and it was signed by Governor Black.

The enlarged metropolis began its official existence January 1, 1898. The government is now vested in a mayor and a municipal assembly, consisting of two houses, elected by the people. The area of the city is 317.77 square miles, and its population, according to official estimates, will, on January 1, 1898, be 3,400,000, the daily increase being 400. If this rate is preserved, the population in fifty years will be 20,000,000, which will surpass that of London, should that city also maintain its present ratio of growth.

"Greater New York"

Within the limits of this great city are the cities of New York, Brooklyn, Long Island City, Jamaica, all of Staten Island, the western end of Long Island, Coney Island, Rockaway, Valley Stream, Flushing, Whitestone, College Point, Willets' Point, Fort Schuyler, Throgg's Neck, Westchester, Baychester, Pelham Manor, Van Cortlandt, Riverdale, and Spuyten Duyvil. The extreme length of the city from the southern end of Staten Island to the northern limits at Yonkers on the Hudson is thirty-two miles. Its greatest width from the Hudson River to the boundary line across Long Island, beyond Creedmoor, is sixteen miles the municipality forming an impressive illustration of American growth and grandeur.

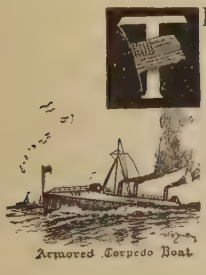
The White Squadron.

CHAPTER XCII

McKINLEY'S FIRST ADMINISTRATION—1897–1901 (*CONTINUED*)

[*Authorities:* When the *Monitor* and the *Merrimac* encountered each other in Hampton Roads, it was a fateful conflict. The naval authorities and experts throughout the world were confronted by conditions new, and, until then, unexpected. A readjustment to those conditions became a necessity. The immense wooden navies of European nations had become useless. An iron monster like the *Merrimac* could have steamed up the Thames, destroyed the vessels she might have met, and burned the city of London. All this was realized, and at once was inaugurated an age of improvement in naval ordnance and ship-building. Soon iron was discarded, on account of the improvement in artillery, and steel was substituted. Then came the "Harvey Process" and nickel steel, and with them, increased thickness of steel armor. Finally, the question has come whether a vessel can be armored so effectively as to resist successfully the terrible steel shot of 13-inch steel guns. All this time England has been straining every nerve to remain mistress of the seas. The advent of the perfected torpedo-boat, and the early solution of the problem, will probably soon render useless the steel navies of the world. Then will come arbitration, in which equity, and not diplomatic trickery and over-reaching, will have to be the primary consideration.

Authorities are Hon. Hilary A. Herbert, Secretary of the Navy from 1893 to 1897, and Chief Constructor Philip Hichborn.]


Armored Torpedo Boat

THE glorious history of the American navy has been partly given in the preceding pages. It is a record that must thrill every patriotic heart, and since during the last few years the Government has taken steps to make our navy the finest in the world, a connected account of the growth of this "national bulwark" should be interesting and important.

Five years after the adoption of the Constitution, Congress authorized the construction of six powerful frigates, which were at once laid down by Joshua Reynolds, among them being the *Constitution*, the most famous vessel connected with the navy, she and her sisters

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THE NEW UNITED STATES

winning most of the glory that was won by Americans in the War of 1812. Our pride in our navy was intensified. We were among the first to introduce steam as a motive power on the ocean, and we constructed the finest ships in the world.

"ATLANTA," U. S. N.

Necessity compelled a mushroom growth of the navy during the War for the Union, and the battle between the *Merrimac* and *Monitor* in 1862 wrought a revolution in naval warfare. In 1861 we were the fifth among naval powers, and the ship-yards rang with hammers night and day in the effort to supply the national need of vessels for blockading and other purposes. Many of these were completed in a few weeks, and were necessarily of so frail a character that they speedily became valueless after the close of hostilities.

"CHARLESTON," U. S. N.

A Period of Decadence

A period of decadence succeeded the war. Waste and extravagance followed, and the work of investigating committees proved maladministration in the Navy Department. Congress reduced appropriations, and our warships dwindled, though the utmost

"NEW YORK," U. S. N.

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activity prevailed among other nations. In November, 1881, the Secretary of the Navy, in vigorous language, called the attention of Congress to the fact that our navy was crumbling to pieces, and was in pitiful contrast to the vessels of war of the inferior powers.

The marvellous progress made by other nations in the construction of projectiles, torpedoes, guns, engines, and vessels, and the growing sense of our own neglect in these respects, soon produced good results. The First Advisory Board, convened by Secretary Hunt in 1881, made modest but valuable suggestions, which have been followed in the main to the present time. Secretary Chandler in 1882 called together the Second Advisory Board (composed, like the former, of naval officers and experts), and, as a result of their recommendations, Congress took action, March 3, 1883, which gave us the first four steel ships of the navy. They were the *Chicago*, 4,300 tons; the *Boston* and *Atlanta*, each 3,000 tons, and the despatch-boat *Dolphin* of 1,500 tons. The *Dolphin* was completed, December 3, 1885; the *Atlanta*, July 19, 1886; the *Boston*, May 7, 1887, and the *Chicago*, April 17, 1889.

The Advisory Boards

On March 3, 1885, Congress authorized the construction of two cruisers of not less than 3,000 nor more than 5,000 tons displacement, a heavily armored gunboat of about 1,600 tons, and a light gunboat of about 800 tons. The small gunboat was the *Petrel*, the large gunboat the *Yorktown*, and the cruisers the *Charleston* and the *Newark*.

On August 3, 1886, Congress authorized the construction of two armored vessels of about 6,000 tons displacement, a cruiser of between 3,500 and 5,000 tons, and a first-class torpedo-boat. The first two were the *Maine* and *Texas*, the third the *Baltimore*, and the torpedo-boat the *Cushing*. At the same time the completion of the four double-turreted monitors, *Puritan*, *Amphitrite*, *Monadnock*, and *Terror*, and the construction of the *Vesuvius* were authorized.

The Ships of Domestic Manufacture

In 1886, Congress provided that these ships should be of domestic manufacture, and under such authorization Secretary Whitney contracted with the Bethlehem Iron Company, of Pennsylvania, for armor and great-gun forgings. The delivery of armor by this company was tardy, though in the main satisfactory. The Carnegie Company, of Pittsburg, began making similar deliveries at about the same time to the Government. The only other full-armored cruiser

authorized during Mr. Whitney's term was the *Monterey*. On September 7, 1888, Congress provided for the armored cruiser *New York*.

During the administration of Hilary A. Herbert (to whom we are much indebted for the facts in this article), President Cleveland's Secretary of the Navy, from 1893 to 1897, the construction of the following protected cruisers was begun: *Newark*, *Baltimore*, *Philadelphia*, *San Francisco*, *Cincinnati*, *Raleigh*, *Olympia*, *Detroit*, *Montgomery*, and *Marblehead*; the four gunboats *Petrel*, *Yorktown*, *Bennington*, and *Concord*; the *Vesuvius*, a ship designed to experiment in throwing dynamite with pneumatic guns, and the *Bancroft*, a practice vessel for the cadets at the Naval Academy.

"BALTIMORE," U. S. N.

"COLUMBIA," U. S. N.

A comparison between the *Chicago* and the *Olympia* shows the rapid advance made between the times of their construction. The former had a speed of fifteen knots, while that of the latter was twenty-one and three-quarters. In every respect the *Olympia* is an up-to-date cruiser, and is so much the superior of the *Chicago* that material changes and improvements are to be made in the latter vessel.

Rapid Improvements

On June 30, 1890, Congress authorized the construction of three

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first-class battleships, the *Indiana*, *Massachusetts*, and *Oregon*, and a first-class, swift, protected cruiser, the *Columbia*. At the same time the "Harvey" process was introduced in manufacturing the armor, which is without a superior in the world. Thus it may be said the foundations of the new American navy have been laid, and our rank at the front of naval powers is assured.

"IOWA," U. S. N.

The act of March 3, 1893, authorized the laying down of three gunboats, the *Nashville*, *Helena*, and *Wilmington*. The act of March 2, 1895, authorized six others, the *Annapolis*, *Vicksburg*, *Newport*, *Princeton*, *Wheeling*, and *Marietta*. These are known as "unarmored composite" vessels. Two battleships also, the *Kearsarge* and the *Kentucky*, were authorized, and by act of June 10, 1896, three battleships, the *Alabama*, *Illinois*, and *Wisconsin*, are to be brought into being.

"MINNEAPOLIS." U. S. N.

HOW BATTLESHIPS ARE NAMED

The general law prescribes that battleships shall be named for States, the single exception being made for the purpose of fitly preserving the name of the *Kearsarge*, the destroyer of the *Alabama*, lost on Roncador reef in 1894. It is a

"BROOKLYN," U. S. N.

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notable coincidence that one of the battleships authorized by the next act is the *Alabama*.

Provision was also made for the perpetuation of Admiral Farragut's flagship, the *Hartford*, which, after the completion of her repairs at the Mare Island Navy-Yard, will take her place among the cruisers of our navy. Congress has also been urged to preserve for coming generations the old *Constitution*, though only a few remnants of that gallant ship remain.

Recent Additions to the Navy

Our government is steadily adding to its navy, which has become one of the most powerful in the world. In 1904, we had (completed or contracted for) 24 battleships, of which the *Texas*, of 6,315 tons, was the only one whose displacement was not 10,000 tons or more. The *Connecticut*, *Kansas*, *Louisiana*, *Minnesota* and *Vermont* have 16,500 tons displacement respectively. The building of each, with the exception of the *Louisiana*, cost more than $4,000,000. The smallest expense was for the *Kearsarge*, *Kentucky* and *Texas* ($2,250,000 each), from which a general idea of the immense total value of our modern navy may be formed. The late war between Russia and Japan has raised the momentous question whether these colossal warships after all will not prove helpless before the assaults of the modern torpedo destroyers and mines, which played such startling havoc with the mightiest members of the fleets.

The armored cruisers are ten in number, of which the *Washington* is of 14,518 tons displacement, the *Tennessee* of 14,500, and the *California*, *Maryland*, *Pennsylvania*, *South Dakota* and *Western Virgina*, 13,680 tons each. We have a single-armored ram, the *Kahtahdin*, of 2,155 tons, and capable of a speed of 17 knots. The double-turret monitors are six in number, the largest and most powerful being the *Puritan* of 6,060 tons. There are also nine single-turret monitors, of which the *Arkansas*, *Florida*, *Nevada* and *Wyoming* are each of 3,200 tons displacement. They are not swift vessels, the speed varying from five to twelve or slightly more knots. This, however, is sufficient for harbor defense purposes.

There are 27 unarmored steel vessels, the largest being the *St. Louis* and *Milwaukee* of 9,700 tons. The fastest is the *Minneapolis*, 7,375 tons, of a little more than 23 knots, with the *Columbia*, 22.8, the *Milwaukee*, *St. Louis* and *Charleston*, 22 knots, and the others very little behind.

Included with the 23 gunboats are 4 captured from Spain. The

largest of the gunboats are the *Bennington*, *Concord* and *Yorktown*, each of 1,710 tons, and with a speed of 16 knots. In the special class are the *Chesapeake*, *Cumberland*, *Dolphin*, *Vesuvius*, *Intrepid* and *Boxer*. The *Vesuvius* has attained 21 knots, but its displacement is only 929 tons, that of the *Dolphin*, the largest, being 1,486 tons. The auxiliary cruisers are the *Buffalo*, *Dixie*, *Panther*, *Prairie* and *Yankee*, the largest being the *Prairie* of 6,620 tons.

"INDIANA," U. S. N.

The torpedo boats, built or building, are 37 in number. Amazing speed has been shown by several of them. The *Rowan* and *Thornton* have made 27 knots; the *Biddle*, *Du Pont* and *Porter* 28 knots; the *Bagley* and *Barney* 29 knots; and the *Bailey*, *Dahlgren*, *Farragut*, *Goldsborough*, *Stringham* and *T. A. M. Craven*, 30 knots. There are eight submarine boats, each capable of eight knots an hour.

"MAINE," U S. N

Of the sixteen torpedo boat destroyers, the lowest speed is 28 knots, while the *Whipple* and *Worden* have developed 30 knots

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The forty-one unarmored cruisers are made of steel and iron, and each carries a battery of from two to ten guns, the largest having a displacement of 975 tons, and the smallest 42 tons. Their speed varies from 8 to 19 knots. We have, in addition, a number of old iron and wooden steam vessels, and the following sailing vessels: training ships, *Constellation* and *Monongahela*; school ships, *St. Mary* and *Saratoga*, and training ship *Alliance*. The total number of vessels (1904) is 320, of which 45 are authorized or under construction, 23

"NEWARK," U. S. N.

are unfit for service, and 252, including those undergoing repair, fit for service.

A Graphic Description

No description can give an adequate idea of the wonderful complexity of one of the ocean battleships, but the following extract from a paper by Mr. Hichborn may serve as an outline picture of one of those marvellous creations:

"Take, for instance, a battleship of the type of the *Indiana*, *Massachusetts*, and *Oregon*. She is the home of about five hundred men, and carries 44 guns, varying from the 13-inch, with its projectile of 1,150 pounds, to the 6-millimetre Gatling, which fires a

bullet of .0186 pound. Ammunition for all these guns is carried in sufficient quantity to enable her to fight a prolonged action, and still have some left. The heavy guns and their crews, the propelling machinery, the principal auxiliary machinery, and the buoyancy and stability of the ship are protected by armor varying from eighteen inches to four inches in thickness.

"The structure of the ship must be absolutely seaworthy, must support all of the above weights without being unduly strained, and

"CHICAGO," U. S. N.

must, moreover, be minutely subdivided into small compartments. Fresh air must be supplied all over the ship and foul air removed. All of the above qualities are possessed by a structure some 350 feet long, 69 feet wide, and 43 feet deep, displacing normally 10,200 tons of sea-water, whose cubic contents are the same as those of a cube whose edge is 85.7 feet."

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"COLORADO, U. S. N."

CHAPTER XCIII

McKINLEY'S FIRST ADMINISTRATION—1897–1901 (*CONTINUED*)

Arctic Exploration

[*Authorities:* The "Divine Unrest" that prompts man to great endeavor and high achievement has impelled him to invade the eternally frozen solitudes about the North Pole. That men have perished in the attempt to reach the pole, and that each attempt has failed of accomplishing the ultimate object, have served only to stimulate others to make the same trial. We hear much about the gain to geographical science that is the result of these expeditions, but it is doubtful whether the gain is not more fictitious than real. Pope says:

"To know contents our natural desire."

It is this universal desire to know that which is hidden from us that wins the world to countenance such enterprises; and the intensity of this desire increases as the obstacles to our knowledge are multiplied. Our explorers in every domain may confidently count upon the applause of the world if they come back with news of the hitherto unknown. They may be equally confident, too, that it will not occur to many to start the question of *cui bono?*—what is the good of it? Then again, no one can assert, with any degree of certainty, that a particular discovery will not, sooner or later, be of practical value, and enhance the happiness and accelerate the progress of the race.

Authorities are R. E. Peary, C. E., U. S. N.; General A. W. Greely; papers of the American Geographical Society, and other publications.]

THE achievement of Lieutenant Lockwood and Sergeant Brainard, who in 1882 reached the most northern point ever attained up to that time by man, marked an era in Arctic exploration. The work of Lieut. R. E. Peary, C. E., U. S. N., ranks next in importance, for, although he did not go so far north as the members of Greely's party, he penetrated far enough to discover the secret of the northern boundary of Greenland.

The 79th parallel is the highest point previously attained on the

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eastern coast of Greenland. Lieutenant Peary's aim was to learn how far north Greenland extends, and whether it offers the best basis for future efforts to reach the North Pole.

As we have already learned, the highest point as yet attained was by the Norwegian explorer, Dr. Fridtjof Nansen, who on April 7, 1895, reached latitude 86° 15′, which is two hundred miles nearer the North Pole than any preceding expedition has ever gone. The following table of latitudes reached by Arctic explorers during the past three hundred years has been compiled by Gen. A. W. Greely:

Furthest Points Attained

Eastern Hemisphere.			Western Hemisphere.		
Year	Explorer	Latitude	Year	Explorer	Latitude
1594.	William Barents	77° 20′	1587.	John Davis	72° 12′
1596.	Ryp and Heemskerck	79° 49′	1607.	Henry Hudson	73°
1607.	Henry Hudson	80° 23′	1616.	William Baffin	77° 45′
1773.	J. C. Phipps	80° 48′	1852.	E. A. Inglefield	78° 21′
1806.	William Scoresby	81° 30′	1854.	E. K. Kane	80° 10′
1827.	W. E. Parry	82° 45′	1870.	C. F. Hall	82° 11′
1868.	Nordenskjöld and Otter	81° 42′	1871.	C. F. Hall	82° 07′
1874.	Weyprecht and Payer	82° 05′	1875.	G. S. Nares	82° 48′
1895.	Dr. Nansen	86° 15′	1876.	G. S. Nares	83° 20′
			1882.	A. W. Greely	83° 24′

With the aid of the National Academy of Science of Philadelphia, Lieutenant Peary sailed in the steamer *Kite*, June 6, 1891. He was accompanied by eight men, whose purpose was to study the geology, botany, and zoology of Western Greenland.

In one respect this Arctic expedition differed from all others: it had a female member in the person of the wife of Lieutenant Peary, to whom he had been recently married.

Before landing at McCormick Bay, Lieutenant Peary's leg was broken by a piece of ice that was flung over the vessel. Quarters were erected and the following winter passed comfortably, the surrounding country being thoroughly explored. On the 3d of May the lieutenant bade good-by for a time to his wife, and, accompanied by Mr. Astrup, a Norwegian, started on a journey northward and inland.

Independence Bay

The couple were gone some three months, during which no mishap befell them. They travelled over an unbroken expanse of snow and ice, which gradually reached an elevation of eight thousand feet. On the 26th of June the limit of land confronted them to the north and northeast. Still farther, it deflected to the southeast. On July 4th, they reached a large bay opening east and northeast, in latitude 81° 37′ and longitude 34°. To this body of water they gave the name of Independence Bay.

They arrived at McCormick Bay, August 6th, having journeyed more than thirteen hundred miles. They found the steamer *Kite* awaiting them, and, embarking, arrived at St. John, Newfoundland, on the 11th of September, 1892.

This successful expedition was marred by only one sad incident. Mr. Verhoeff, of Kentucky, a geologist, and one of the most enthusiastic members of the party, started off on a two days' scientific trip and never returned. His footsteps were traced to the edge of a glacier, into one of whose crevasses he must have fallen.

LIEUTENANT PEARY

Lieutenant Peary was convinced that his expedition proved Greenland to be an island, whose most northerly point lies a short way above the 82d parallel, the two coasts rapidly approaching each other above the 77th parallel.

Another expedition sailed from St. John in July, 1893, in the *Falcon*, the destination being Boudouin Bay in Inglefield Gulf, thirty-five miles north of McCormick's harbor. The intention was to push on to Independence Bay, the highest point attained by Peary in 1892, to map the coast between that and Cape Bismarck, and to penetrate the archipelago to the north, of which nothing was known. The expedition included twelve men and two women, one of them again being Mrs. Peary, to whom a daughter was born, September 12, 1893, at Falcon Harbor. The ice was so heavy and general that little was accomplished by this expedition.

Expedition of the Falcon

In September, 1894, the *Falcon* reached St. John with all the members of the party, excepting Lieutenant Peary, Hugh J. Lee,

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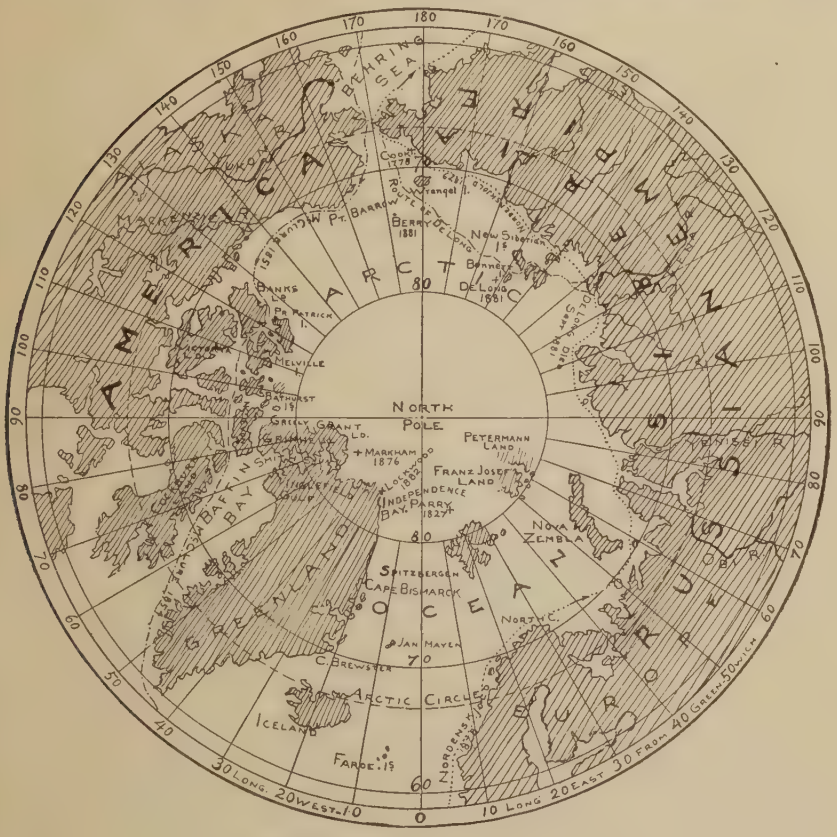
TRAVELLING UNDER DIFFICULTIES

FROM THE ORIGINAL PAINTING BY J. STEEPLE DAVIS

and Peary's colored servant, Matthew Henson, who stayed behind to attempt the northward journey alone the following year. The next news from the little party was that the relief steamer *Kite* had arrived at St. John, Newfoundland, with the three men safe and well on board.

Their experience had been of the most trying character. They



REGION AROUND THE NORTH POLE

left Anniversary Lodge, April 1st, with five sledges, forty-nine dogs, and a party of Eskimos. One hundred and thirty-five miles inland they expected to find a cache of provisions, but the snow had buried it out of sight. All the Eskimos deserted, but the three men pushed on, hoping to supply themselves with food by shooting game. Before Independence Bay was reached, Lee succumbed and had to be hauled on a sledge by the others. Several musk oxen were shot, and

A Trying Experience

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PEARY'S PLAN OF JOURNEYING TO THE POLE

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saved the explorers from starvation. On the return the dogs began dying until only one remained. Lee again gave out, and for days was dragged on one of the sleds. For three weeks the men lived on a single meal a day, and for twenty-six hours before reaching camp not one had a morsel of food. The relief expedition walked thirty five miles to Boudouin Bay, where they found Peary and his companions, and the parties returned to the ship, August 4th.

Valuable Specimens

It was mainly through the liberality of Morris K. Jesup and the directors of the American Museum of Natural History that the *Kite* was fitted out and this expedition undertaken. The steamer brought the most valuable collection ever obtained in the Arctic regions, secured chiefly through Prof. L. L. Dyche, of the Kansas State University, representing the American Museum, who made his headquarters at Holstenberg. It included four thousand specimens of birds' eggs, and animals, such as walrus, narwhal, bear, seal, fishes, lichens, etc., besides two large meteorites, one of which weighs three tons. A meteorite weighing forty tons was also discovered near Cape York, where it was seen and reported by Sir John Ross in 1818. The photographs, covering nearly every point of interest, numbered thousands.

The Sixth Expedition

The sixth expedition, whose inception was Peary's, sailed from Sydney, Cape Breton, July 15, 1896, one of its purposes being to secure and bring home the great Ross meteor. Two independent scientific parties accompanied the expedition, one from the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, and the other from Cornell University. The former, in charge of Prof. Alfred Burton, was landed at Omenak Fiord, Baffin Bay, while the latter, under charge of Prof. Ralph S. Tarr, was put ashore near the southern end of Melville Bay. Both parties made careful studies and obtained valuable botanical collections. A mountain was discovered and named Mount Schurman, in honor of the president of Cornell University.

It was found impossible with the appliances at command to remove the great meteor, and the ice forced the party to withdraw, on September 4th.*

Lieutenant Peary furnishes another proof of the strange fascina-

* The American Geographical Society, through its president, Charles P. Daly, presented a gold medal to Mr. Peary on the evening of January 12, 1897, at Chickering Hall, New York city, in recognition of the fact that Mr. Peary had established the insularity of Greenland. The late General G. W. Cullom left $100,000 to the society for

tion that the Arctic solitudes exert over the explorers that have once undergone the terrible perils and sufferings in those regions of desolation. His purpose now is to persevere until he reaches the North Pole. His plan is a systematic and comprehensive one, which may be extended over a period of ten years, though it is hoped that success will be attained in a fourth of that time.

The sum needed to carry out this ambitious project is $150,000.

SKINNING A BEAR ON THE ICE

When this was virtually secured, the Secretary of the Navy, to the dismay of Peary and his friends, ordered him to the Mare Island Navy-Yard at San Francisco. Charles A. Moore, of Brooklyn, presented the case so strongly to Secretary Long that in April, 1897, he revoked the order, and the preparations for the preliminary journey were soon afterwards made.

This first journey is to be for the purpose of completing arrangements with the Eskimos of the Whale Sound country to meet Peary

a building, and a further sum to be known as the Cullom Geographical Fund to be given to those—particularly to American citizens—who should render most distinguished services to geographical science.

at some point in the summer of 1898. These migratory Arctic Highlanders number about two hundred and fifty men, women, and children. They are all acquaintances and friends of Peary, and have received so many presents and kindnesses from him that they will eagerly serve him and go wherever he wishes. Mr. Peary's plan, as outlined by himself, is to select ten families of these Arctic Highlanders, who are best fitted to assist in the intended expedition.

"I want to engage them this coming summer, and have them prepare the walrus meat and fur clothes, canoes, and sledges, and train the dogs between that time and the following summer, when they will be prepared to meet me at some point fixed upon, ready to sail as far north as we can get the ship. By arranging with them in this way to meet me at an appointed time, all the loss of time that would follow upon having to work along the coast to pick them up in 1898 will be avoided.

Peary's Plan of Reaching the North Pole

"After making these necessary arrangements with the Eskimos this summer, my plan is to come back with the ship, and in the summer of 1898 sail to the rendezvous on Whale Sound with the ship fully supplied with concentrated provisions and all the necessary stores for a protracted siege of life in the Arctic regions. There we shall take on the Eskimos and push as far north as we can go with the ship, through Robeson's Channel and on to the head of Sherard Osborne Fjord, if possible. It is possible for an experienced hand to put a ship in at almost any point on Smith Sound, but when it comes to sailing north of that one can only say where he wants to go, and then take advantage of the conditions as they present themselves. At any rate, we shall go in the ship to the farthest north point it is possible to reach with her, and there unload her supplies and establish the Eskimos in a colony. If it be possible to sail beyond Sherard Osborne Fjord, we shall do so. My plan is to take both the men and their wives from Whale Sound, so that they shall be contented in this northern colony. Greely's trouble with his Eskimos was all due to the fact that he had only men. They started back home to their families, three hundred or four hundred miles over the ice. It was a mild species of insanity that afflicted them.

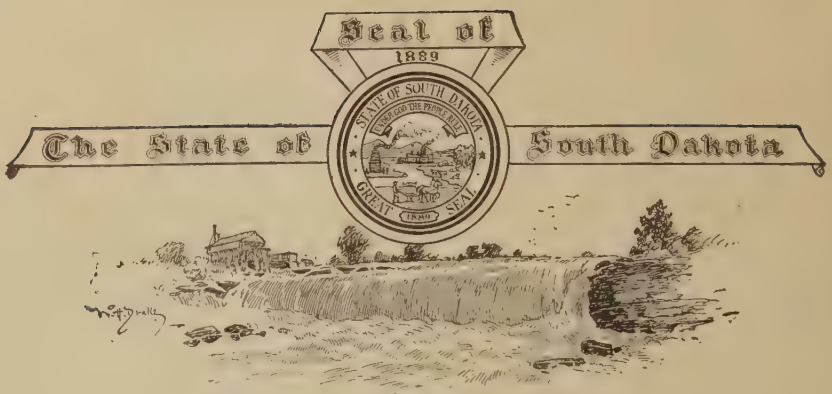
"After unloading, the ship will be sent back to New York, to come up again the next year, 1899, to the point where she left the colony, or if she fails to reach it the next year, then to come again

in the year after. After the colony is settled, my plan is to take advantage of such daylight as remains in that summer and of the moons during the winter night to push out overland northward, first reconnoitring, and then, when the way is marked out, moving our provisions forward and establishing the settlement at each remove nearer our objective point, leaving caches at every stopping-place and prominent headland as we go. In this way the progress is to be kept up until the farthest northern land is reached, a plan easily

A LONELY HOME IN THE ARCTIC REGIONS

workable, as we shall live in the regular Eskimo snow-house. From this farthest northern land, where the settlement will be fixed temporarily, will be made the last spurt for the pole. The talk about an open polar sea or polar crystal sea is all nonsense. There is no special weather made for the pole, nor are special conditions appointed for that particular locality. Either there is land there, or there is a sea, and a sea like that with which we are familiar in that region, wholly frozen over all the time—the ice mass moving somewhat with the winds, however—or frozen solid for nine or ten months and then intermittently open and closed as the wind listeth.

"The colony will remain at the point fixed upon and only the chosen party go on. Numbers are fatal to Arctic explorations, the entire animus of the region being set against them. The ideal party is two, as Nansen and I have shown, and I shall have what Nansen lacked, Eskimos to drive the dogs. His experience shows that this is necessary. I tell you, just as only a negro can drive a mule, only an Eskimo can drive a dog. The natives will put a sledge over a place where no white man could think of getting it. They are brought up to the business. If our end should be achieved in one expedition from this settlement, all well; if not, we could lie over until the following summer.



Falls of the Big Sioux River.

CHAPTER XCIV

McKINLEY'S FIRST ADMINISTRATION—1897–1901 (*CONTINUED*).

[*Authorities:* It has been said that our purchase of Alaska was really a recognition of the friendship of Russia to us during the great Civil War. Be that as it may, the Territory has proved one of the most valuable acquisitions. The story of the development of the seal industry, and the efforts of our Government to protect the herds from extinction is an interesting narrative. None the less instructive is it to recall the early history of the States, whose centennial anniversaries now begin to claim attention. Our authorities are the official correspondence between Great Britain and the United States, Ramsay's "History of America," and various other histories and contemporary publications.]

Morro Castle, Havana, Cuba.

IT was some years after the purchase of Alaska by the United States from Russia, the Pribylov Islands, which are the breeding-grounds of the fur seal, were leased to the Alaska Commercial Company, which was granted a monopoly of seal killing under stringent regulations intended to prevent the extermination of the animals.

This industry was so valuable that no vigilance of the Government in guarding the islands could prevent wholesale poaching by American and Canadian vessels, which pursued the seals upon the open sea. To stop this, our Government in 1886 set up the claim that Bering Sea was *mare clausum* (a closed sea), and asserted its jurisdiction over the eastern half. When Russia ceded the country to us in 1867 she claimed to grant such rights of jurisdiction, but, unfortunately for us, we protested in 1822 against Russia's claim of the right of sovereignty outside the usual three-mile limit of territorial jurisdiction.

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Andrew Johnson
James A. Garfield
Grover Cleveland

Ulysses S. Grant
William McKinley

Rutherford B. Hayes
Chester A. Arthur
Benjamin Harrison

PRESIDENTS OF THE UNITED STATES—1865 TO 1901

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This new doctrine led to the governmental seizure of many Canadian and American sealers, for which Great Britain claimed damages. Considerable negotiation followed, when it was agreed to submit the question to arbitration, which was also to decide upon the best methods for preserving the seals from extinction. The United States appointed as its two arbitrators Justice John M. Harlan, of the Supreme Court, and Senator John T. Morgan; Great Britain, Lord Hannen and Sir John S. D. Thompson; France, Baron de Courcel; Italy, the Marquis Emilio Visconti-Venosta, and Sweden and Norway, Gregers W. W. Gram.

WHOLESALE SLAUGHTER OF SEALS

Decision Against the American Claim

The tribunal began its sessions in Paris, March 23, 1893, and rendered its decision on the 15th of the following August. This decision was against the American claim to exclusive jurisdiction of any sort over the waters of Bering Sea outside the three-mile territorial limit, established a close season for seals in those waters from May 1st to July 31st, and forbade pelagic sealing within sixty miles of the Pribylov Islands, sealing in steam vessels or with fire-arms, the regulations to be carried out by the British and American governments concurrently.

The regulations equally bound Great Britain with the United States to forbid her subjects to kill, capture, or pursue at any time or in any manner fur seals within a zone of sixty miles around the Pribylov Islands, or during the breeding season in any part of the Pacific, inclusive of Bering Sea, situated north of the 35th degree of north latitude, or eastward of the 180th degree of longitude.

Great Britain was dissatisfied with the award, and the Canadian sealers thought the proposed close season too long, the extent of the prohibited zone too great, and the regulations too severe. There was delay in the necessary legislation in England, which was not effected there nor in the United States until April, 1894. The question left for adjudication was that concerning the compensation due to sealers whose vessels were illegally seized by United States cutters prior to the establishment of a close season in 1890.

Congressional Action

The American bill passed Congress and received the President's signature on April 6th, and was put into effect by proclamation four days later. There was some criticism upon the British bill, as not being in exact accordance with the agreement, but it became operative on the 23d of April. By these measures the close season was made legally binding only upon British, American, and Russian subjects. Vessels of other nations were left free to enter and fish in Bering Sea, but the United States determined to seize all poachers, taking the risk of the suits for damages that might follow.

President Cleveland's Recommendation

President Cleveland in his message to Congress recommended the payment of the sum of $425,000 to Great Britain for damages done to British subjects by the action of the United States cruisers in Bering Sea, adding that these claims of the Canadian sealers had received thorough examination by both governments "upon the principles as well as the facts involved."

Investigation proved that more than one-half of the damages claimed were of the consequential kind. In other words, they consisted of constructive losses in the form of seals that would or might have been taken had not such vessels been warned to keep out of Bering Sea. The tribunal of arbitration had not passed upon this question, and justice required therefore that we should be governed by precedent. The most authoritative precedent was set by the *Alabama* tribunal at Geneva in 1871, which ruled out all consideration of constructive and consequential damages

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Eighteen vessels claimed damages, but it was proven that ten of them belonged to American citizens, the firm of Warren & Boscovitz, of San Francisco, who made a fictitious transfer of their property to an English blacksmith named Cooper. For these reasons Congress refused to vote the payment of a sum that was nearly ten times as large as it should have been.

By this time it had become apparent to experts that the regulations recommended by the tribunal of 1893, and subsequently put in force in both Great Britain and the United States, were wholly inadequate to accomplish the purpose intended. Unless more stringent laws are enacted and enforced, the seals in a few years will become as scarce as the bison. Commander C. E. Clark, in his report to the Navy Department, said:

Danger to the Seals

"Upward of 30,000 seals were captured this year (1894) in Bering Sea after the 31st of July, and of these nearly 25,000 were females. A careful estimate, made early in September, showed that 9,300 pups had already died of starvation on the rookeries, and that about an equal number would later perish in the same miserable manner, half of them being females. About 33,000 were lost, and the reproductive power of the herd has been lowered from 10 to 20 per cent. The success that has attended pelagic sealing this year, and the knowledge that has been obtained of methods that can be followed and of grounds that may be resorted to advantageously, will probably double the number of vessels engaged, and increase the catch proportionately the coming season. The loss as before will fall where it is most to be dreaded, *i. e.*, upon the females. While the disparity in the number of each sex taken has been determined, the reasons for it are not known. In my opinion, the male seals who are not able to fight their way on the rookeries retire as far as they are compelled to by the bulls in possession, and no farther; while the females, who have young to suckle, leave, when impregnated, for the feeding-grounds, which seem, most unfortunately, to be well outside of the prohibited zone."

An Enormous Catch

Although an extensive patrol was maintained, the pelagic catch in the North Pacific in 1894, including Bering Sea, reached the enormous total of from 130,000 to 142,000 seals. For 1895, the United States decided to entrust the work of patrol to vessels in the revenue-cutter service exclusively, four of which were promptly selected. On March 3, 1895, the house passed a bill authorizing the President to

conclude and proclaim a *modus vivendi* with the governments of Great Britain, Russia, and Japan providing for new regulations for the preservation of the seal herd, and in case of failure to arrange such *modus vivendi* on or before May 1, 1896, all the seals, male and female, to be found on Pribylov Islands were to be destroyed. In other words, the United States determined to kill the entire seal herd as the only way of preventing the Canadian poachers from stealing it.

Provision for a Joint Commission

The failure of Congress to vote a settlement of the claims for damages made by the British sealers that had been seized, delayed joint action by the two governments for the protection of the seals that were threatened with extermination. Finally, it was reported on November 13, 1895, that a convention looking towards the settlement of the claims of Canadian sealers had been negotiated by Sir Julian Pauncefote, the British ambassador at Washington, and Secretary of State Olney, after consultation with Premier Sir Mackenzie Bowell and Minister of Justice Sir C. Hibbert Tupper, representing the Canadian Government. The provision was for a joint commission consisting of one representative each from Great Britain and the United States to meet at Victoria, B. C., to assess the damages suffered by the Canadians. In case of a failure to agree by the two commissioners, a third was to be chosen. If such umpire could not be agreed upon, he should be named by the President of the Swiss republic.

It was reported that about 40,000 seal-skins, of which 80 per cent. were from females, were taken in Bering Sea in 1895, after July 31st, when the close season ended, and that 27,000 dead pups were counted, all of which had perished from starvation at the rookeries.

Treaty Ratified by the Senate

On April 15, 1896, the treaty between the United States and Great Britain, providing for the appointment of a commission to assess damages arising out of illegal seizures of British sealing vessels, was ratified by the Senate. On June 3d, ratifications of the convention were exchanged in London, and several days later the full text was made public. The place of meeting was changed from Vancouver, B. C., to San Francisco, Cal., and a bill appropriating $75,000 to defray the expenses of the United States in the joint commission was passed and approved by President Cleveland, May 8th. The two commissioners provided for in the treaty were selected in July. They were Judge George E. King, of Canada, and Judge William L. Putnam, of the First United States Judicial Court.

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The counsel for the United States include Hon. Don M. Dickinson, Robert Lansing, and Charles B. Warren, of Detroit, Mich. The British counsel are Hon. F. Peters, Q.C., Premier of Prince Edward Island, F. L. Beique, Q.C., of Montreal, Quebec, Sir Charles Hibbert Tupper, K.C.M.G., and E. V. Bodwell, of Victoria. On December 17, 1897, the commissioners awarded $473,151.26 against the United States.

It will be recalled that the first State admitted into the Union was Vermont, on March 4, 1791, followed by Kentucky on June 1, 1792, and by Tennessee on June 1, 1796. Since the last-named State celebrated its centennial from May 1st to November 1, 1897, it is well to refer in this place to the leading incidents in its history, which have already been given a record in these pages.

Early History of Tennessee

Tennessee at first was a part of North Carolina, and the first settlements were made on the Wautaga in the eastern part of the State in 1769 by a company of hunters. North Carolina proposed to surrender the territory to the United States Government, but the settlers protested and formed a separate State under the name of Franklin or Frankland, in honor of Benjamin Franklin. John Sevier, the hero of King's Mountain, was elected governor, and the legislature requested its admission as a State. So many of the inhabitants were favorable to North Carolina that they overthrew the Government, the North Carolina legislature passed an act of amnesty, and Sevier was admitted as a Senator. A territorial government was organized, under provisions like those of the ordinance of 1787, except that slavery was permitted. Then followed its admission into the Union as already stated.

Tennessee during the Civil War

Knoxville was the capital until 1802, when it was changed to Nashville, which was first settled by James Robertson in 1780. In January, 1861, the State decided by vote not to secede from the Union, but on June 8th the secessionists overcame this vote, and the State was declared a member of the Southern Confederacy. East Tennessee, however, remained stanchly loyal throughout the war. Some of the fiercest battles in that fateful struggle were fought upon its soil, among which were Island No. 10, Nashville, Chickamauga, Lookout Mountain, Missionary Ridge, Shiloh, Stone River, Fort Donelson, and Franklin. It was restored to the Union July 24, 1866, and the present constitution was adopted in 1870. When the State was originally admitted its population was 77,202, which had increased in 1890 to 1,767,518.

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TENNESSEE CENTENNIAL AND INDUSTRIAL EXPOSITION, NASHVILLE

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Although the third State to be admitted, Tennessee was the first to celebrate its centennial. This was done by holding at Nashville, the capital, from May 1 to November 1, 1897, a great Centennial and International Exposition. The place where the Exposition was held is in the western suburbs of Nashville, previously known as West Side Park, which contains two hundred acres of beautiful and fertile land, whose trees, shrubbery, and flowers, lakes and rivulets, harbors and pavilions, walks and terraces, including a reproduction of the famous Rialto of Venice, made the scene like a picture from fairyland.

NASHVILLE EXPOSITION—VIEW ON COMMERCE AVENUE

Opening of the Exposition

At noon, President McKinley in Washington touched the button which set in motion the machinery of the Exposition, and congratulated the Tennesseans who were present to witness the proceedings. When the wheels began revolving, the boom of a cannon announced the formal opening. Tremendous applause followed, the audience in the auditorium rising and cheering again and again, while every steam whistle in the city added to the din.

The sun was shining bright on the outside, and the exercises were simple and appropriate. After a prayer by Bishop Gaylor, brief addresses were delivered by Governor Taylor, Director-General Lewis, and other state, city, and exposition officers, the entire programme

consuming little more than an hour. The attendance during the day and night was estimated at 50,000.

The buildings were numerous and striking. In addition to the great Auditorium, with seats for 6,000 people, there were buildings for commerce, agriculture, machinery, textiles, minerals, forestry, and the arts. The Woman's Building was in the colonial style, and was an elaboration of the "Hermitage," the home of General Andrew Jackson, near Nashville, and was designed by a woman. The History Building was an adaptation of the Erechtheum of ancient Athens. The Negro Building was a massive and imposing structure containing specimens of work done by negroes in all walks of life. The Art Building is a reproduction of that masterpiece of Greek genius, the Parthenon, and all the structures are attractive and admirably adapted to their intended uses.

The Buildings

President McKinley, accompanied by Mrs. McKinley and a party of friends, visited the Exposition, June 11th. Half the population of the city turned out to do honor to the guests, and thousands came from all parts of the State to join in the welcome. At about 10 o'clock, Governor Taylor, of Tennessee, and Governer Bushnell, of Ohio, and their staffs, called on the President, and shortly after a detachment of ex-Confederates in full uniform drew up in front of the hotel, and escorted the presidential party to the Exposition grounds, the journey being in the nature of a triumphal march.

Major J. W. Thomas, president of the Exposition, delivered an address of welcome, and was followed by Governor Taylor, who also welcomed the guests. Mayor McCarthy spoke cordial words for the city, to which responses were made by Senator Clarke, of Ohio, and Governor Bushnell. President McKinley replied:

Address of President McKinley

"LADIES AND GENTLEMEN: — American nationality, compared with that of Europe and the East, is still very young; and yet already we are beginning to have age enough for centennial anniversaries in States other than the original thirteen. Such occasions are always interesting, and when celebrated in a practical way are useful and instructive. Combining retrospect and review, they recall what has been done by State and nation, and point out what yet remains for both to accomplish in order to fulfill their highest destiny.

"This celebration is of general interest to the whole country and of special significance to the people of the South and West. It marks

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the end of the first century of the State of Tennessee and the close of the first year of its second century.

"One hundred and one years ago this State was admitted into the Union as the sixteenth member in the great family of American commonwealths. It was a welcome addition to the national household—a community young, strong and sturdy, with an honored and

NASHVILLE EXPOSITION—VIEW SHOWING ENTRANCE

heroic ancestry, with fond anticipations not only of its founders, but faith in its success on the part of far-seeing and sagacious statesmen in all parts of the country. I am justified in saying that these anticipations have been grandly realized, that the present of this community of sterling worth is even brighter than prophets of the past had dared to forecast it.

The Pioneers

"The builders of the State, who had forced their way through the trackless forests of this splendid domain, brought with them the same high ideals and fearless devotion to home and country, founded on resistance to oppression, which have everywhere made illustrious the Anglo-American name. Whether it was the territory of Virginia or that of North Carolina, mattered little to them. They came willing and eager to fight for independence and liberty, and in the

war of the Revolution were ever loyal to the standard of Washington. When their representatives served in the Colonial Assembly of North Carolina they chose—for the first time in our country, so far as I know—the great name of Washington for the district in which they lived, and at the close of the Revolution sought to organize their territory into a State, to be known as the State of Franklin, in grateful homage to the name of another of its most distinguished patriot commoners.

NASHVILLE EXPOSITION—THE PARTHENON

"Spain had sought to possess their territory by right of discovery as a part of Florida. France claimed it by right of cession as a part of Louisiana, and England as hers by conquest. But neither contention could for an instant be recognized. Moved by the highest instincts of self-government and the loftiest motives of patriotism, under gallant old John Sevier, at King's Mountain, your forefathers bravely vindicated their honor and gloriously won their independence.

"Thus came the new State, second only then of the now mighty West and Southwest. And it has made a wonderful history for itself. Tennessee has sometimes been called the 'mother of Southwestern statesmen.' It furnished us the immortal Jackson, whose

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record in war and whose administration in peace as the head of the great republic shines on with the advancing years. The century has only added to the lustre of his name, increased the obligations of his countrymen, and exalted him in their affection. Polk and Johnson also were products of this great State, and many more heroes of distinguished deeds whose names will come unbidden to your memories while I speak.

Bravery of Tennesseans

"Tennesseans have ever been volunteer, not drafted, patriots. In 1846, when 2,400 soldiers were called for, 30,000 loyal Tennesseans offered their services; and amid the trials and terrors of the great civil war, under conditions of peculiar distress and embarrassment, her people divided on contending sides. But upon whichever side found, they fought fearlessly to death and gallant sacrifice. Now happily there are no contending sides in this glorious Commonwealth or in any part of our common country. The men who opposed each other in dreadful battle a third of a century ago are once more and forever united together under one flag in a never-to-be-broken Union.

"The glory of Tennessee is not alone in the brilliant names it has contributed to history or the heroic patriotism displayed by the people in so many crises of our national life, but its material and industrial wealth, social advancement, and population are striking and significant in their growth and development. Thirty-five thousand settlers in this State in 1790 had increased to 1,109,000 in 1860, and to-day it has a population closely approximating 2,000,000. Its manufactures, which in 1860 were small and unimportant, in 1890 had reached $72,000,000 in value, while its farm products now aggregate more than $62,000,000 annually. Its river commerce on three great waterways, its splendid railways operating nearly 3,000 miles of road, its mineral wealth of incalculable value, form a splendid augury for the future. I am sure no better workmen could be found than the people of Tennessee to turn these confident promises into grand realities.

Lessons of the Exposition

"Your Exposition shows better than any words of mine can tell the details of your wealth of resources and power of production. You have done wisely in exhibiting these to your own people and to your sister States, and at no time could the display be more effective than now, when what the country needs more than all else is restored confidence in itself. This Exposition demonstrates directly

your own faith and purpose and signifies in the widest sense your true and unfailing belief in the irrepressible pluck of the American people, and is a promising indication of the return of American prosperity. The knowledge which this beautiful and novel Exposition gives will surely stimulate competition, develop your trade, increase your output, enlarge your fields of employment, extend your markets, and so eventually pay for all it cost, as well as justify local sentiment and encourage state pride.

"Men and women I see about me from all parts of the country, and thousands more will assemble here before the Exposition is closed. Let ourselves and let them always remember that whatever differences about politics may have existed, or still exist, we are all Americans before we are partisans, and value the welfare of all the people above party or section. Citizens of different States, we yet love all the States. The lesson of the hour, then, is this—that whatever adverse conditions may temporarily impede the pathway of our national progress, nothing can permanently defeat it."

At the conclusion of the President's speech, Major Thomas introduced Judge J. M. Dickinson, who, in behalf of the Ladies' Hermitage Association, presented Major McKinley with a hickory cane cut from the Hermitage grounds. After the speaking in the auditorium the President and party inspected the different buildings, and returned to the city late in the evening.

The following day was spent in attending the dedication of the Cincinnati Building and inspecting the exhibits of the various buildings, the party leaving in the evening for Washington.

Officers of the Exposition

The officers of the Exposition Company were: John W. Thomas, president; director-general, E. C. Lewis; commissioner-general, A. W. Willis; chief of the Fine Arts and History Department, Theodore Cooley; chief of the Machinery Department, H. C. White; chief of the Bureau of Promotion and Publicity, Herman Justi.

THE UNSEEN HEROES ON A WARSHIP

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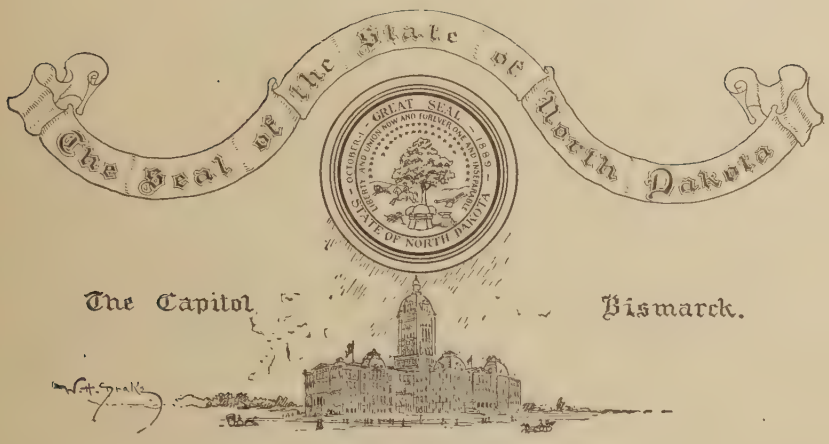

CHAPTER XCV

McKINLEY'S FIRST ADMINISTRATION—1897–1901 (*CONTINUED*)

Literature and Invention

[*Authorities:* It is an interesting question in casuistry to decide whether the world owes more for all that makes life worth living and progress possible to its authors of genius, or to its great inventors and organizers. Sir William Hamilton insists that man should be educated not so much as an instrument for the benefit of others, as with the object of making the most of his faculties—in short, as "an end unto himself." Socrates taught that a man's principal object should be to become "beautiful and good," There is, on the other hand, a utilitarian view of life that is held by many. The Germans have divided the various studies that men pursue in their search for self-culture into two great classes. One of these they call the *Brotwissenschaften*—the bread-and-butter sciences. In this country particularly, we are prone to put more stress upon eminence in science and invention than upon literary triumphs. We hear the names of Edison and Tesla more frequently than those of Longfellow and Lowell. We have a strong suspicion that the hint of culture and refinement involved in our praise of an author tempts many to utter their encomiums upon the work of literary men. Besides, it is easier to read and understand their works than to prepare ourselves to talk intelligently about the scientific principles involved in inventions and discoveries.

Authorities are the various accepted biographies of the men that are mentioned.]

Longfellow's House, Cambridge, Mass.

OUR country has made advances in literature and invention corresponding with its progress in science, discovery, and art. There was a time within the memory of those now living, when the remark was made by an English critic that no one read an American book, but the slur, if partly true in the early years of the Republic, has long since lost all force. American authors are read as widely today in Europe as are foreign writers read on this side of the Atlantic. The number at the present time is too vast for enumera-

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tion in these pages, while every decade brings to the front a multitude to charm, delight, and instruct in all the varied branches of literature.

There are a few names, however, so interwoven with the early development of American letters that justice requires a reference to them. William Cullen Bryant, born in 1798, died in 1878, won distinction at the early age of thirteen years by his spirited poem "The Embargo." This was followed by many others, his most famous short poem being "Thanatopsis," written in his teens, all of which displayed high poetic ability, and extended his reputation in every civilized country. He was editor-in-chief of *The New York Evening Post* from 1828 until his death a half-century later. His paper was noted for its virility, elevated tone, and thoroughly democratic spirit. Mr. Bryant was an ardent supporter of the Government during the Civil War, aided in forming the Republican Party, and was a zealous participant in all public questions. His death was due to an accidental fall, while his mind was in its full vigor, and he was as active physically as many men of half his years.

Bryant

Longfellow

Henry Wadsworth Longfellow, born in 1807 and died in 1882, first became popular through his "Psalm of Life," written in 1838. This was followed by "Hyperion," "Hiawatha," "Tales of a Wayside Inn," "The Courtship of Miles Standish," and a translation of Dante. His amiable qualities made him popular with all, and in England he divides honors with Lord Tennyson, poet laureate. Longfellow is probably the most widely read of any poet in his own country.

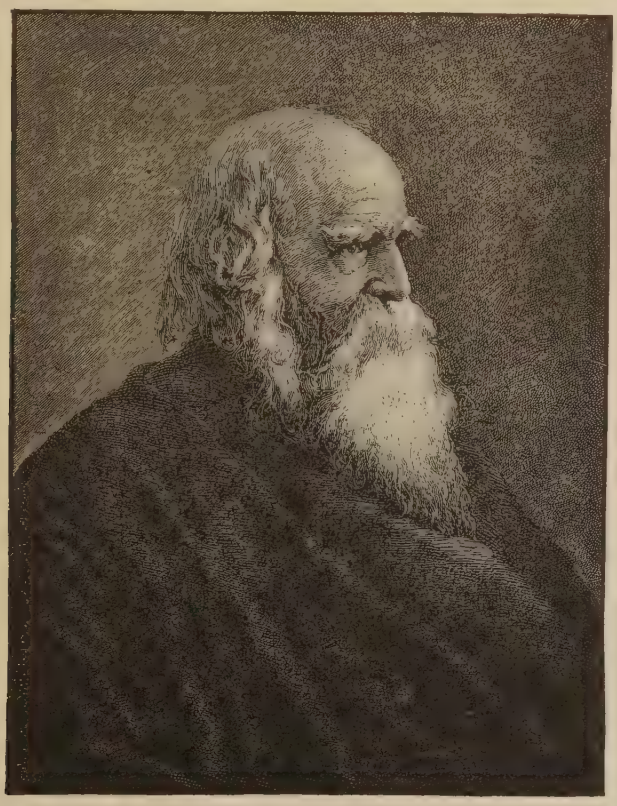
Holmes

Oliver Wendell Holmes, born in 1809, and died in 1894, was an eminent physician whose great distinction was won in literature. Many of his minor poems are gems, and his genial wit and humor are of the most delightful nature. He was one of the founders of *The Atlantic Monthly* in 1857, in which appeared his "Autocrat of the Breakfast Table," "Professor at the Breakfast Table," "Elsie Venner," and other works. In addition, he wrote the memoirs of John Lothrop Motley and of Ralph Waldo Emerson. As a wit, Holmes outranks all other American poets, and his sparkling, graceful humor is a source of constant delight.

Whittier

John Greenleaf Whittier, the "good Quaker poet," born in 1807 and died in 1892, was a member of the Massachusetts legislature from 1835 to 1836. It may be said that he was born with an inex-

tinguishable dislike of slavery, some of his most vigorous poems being aimed at that institution. He was made secretary of the American Anti-Slavery Society in 1836, edited *The Pennsylvania Freeman* from 1838 to 1839, and furnished editorials to *The National Era*, a Washington anti-slavery paper, from 1847 to 1859. Whittier



WILLIAM CULLEN BRYANT

was a man of broad, philanthropic spirit, greatly beloved and second only to Longfellow in popularity. Among his best-known works are "Legends of New England" and "Snow-Bound," while some of his single poems are ranked as classics.

Lowell

James Russell Lowell, born in 1819 and died in 1891, was graduated at Harvard and gave his attention to belles-lettres, finally becoming professor of that department and of modern languages at his university. He was a man of great genius, who served with

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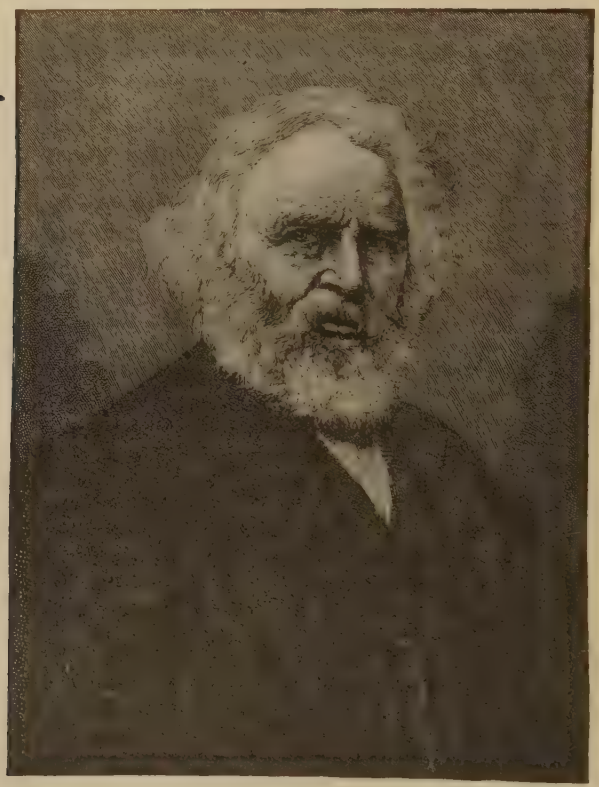
marked honor as editor of *The Atlantic Monthly* and of *The North American Review*. His essays, "Among My Books," etc., his poems, "Cathedral," "Fable for Critics," "Commemoration Ode," and many others, are masterpieces. He was among the sturdiest opponents of slavery, and his "Biglow Papers," 1846–1848, did a



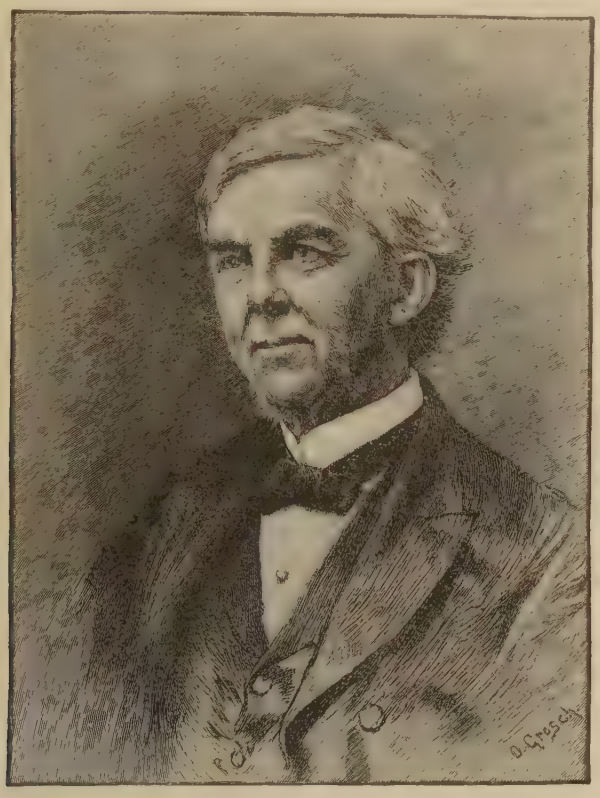
HENRY WADSWORTH LONGFELLOW

great deal in organizing the opposition to that institution. A second series were published during the war. Mr. Lowell was United States Minister to Spain, 1877–1880, and to England, 1880–1885. In both of these exalted stations he won general respect and esteem. A number of his papers on political philosophy are contained in "Democracy and Other Essays."

Emerson

Ralph Waldo Emerson, born in 1803, died in 1882, was ordained as a clergyman in 1829, but resigned his pastorate three years later, because he could not accept the formalities practised in the church.

He then entered upon his notable career as a lecturer, mostly upon biographical and philosophical subjects, besides contributing largely to periodicals and publishing works on philosophy and literature. His profound learning and majestic genius have left him thus far



OLIVER WENDELL HOLMES

without a rival in influence upon the thoughtful minds of our country.

Prescott

William Hickling Prescott, born in 1796, died in 1859, was the grandson of William Prescott, who commanded at Bunker Hill. He was graduated from Harvard in 1814, but while at sport with some fellow students he received an injury to his eyes that rendered him partially blind for the remainder of his life. His wealth enabled him to pursue his prolonged historical researches, with the result that he produced a number of works of great value and possessing

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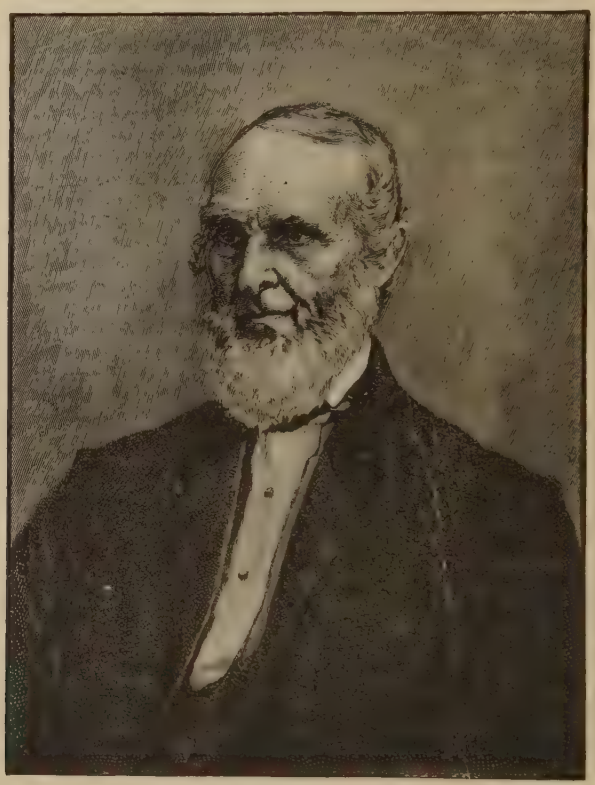
marked attractiveness of style. "Ferdinand and Isabella" appeared in 1838; "Conquest of Mexico" in 1843; "Conquest of Peru" in 1847; "Philip the Second" in 1855–1858, while he also continued Robertson's "Charles V."

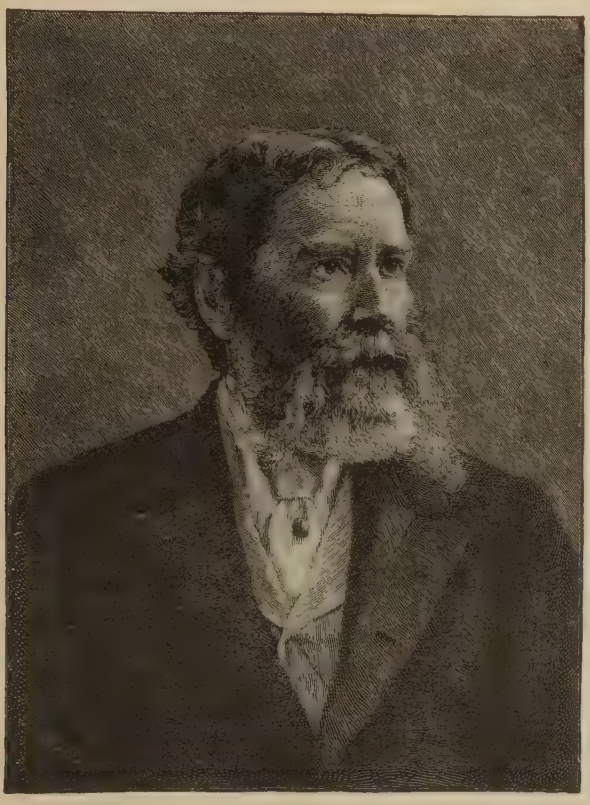
Jared Sparks, born in 1789, died in 1866, was graduated from



JOHN GREENLEAF WHITTIER

Sparks Harvard in 1815. He was a Unitarian clergyman for a short time and was appointed editor of *The North American Review* in 1824, filling the place for seven years. He became professor in Harvard and was president of the college from 1849 to 1853. He was the author of many valuable historical works, including the "Diplomatic Correspondence of the American Republic," in twelve volumes, the "Life and Writings of Washington," the "Library of American Biography," a biography of Gouverneur Morris, and an edition of Franklin's works.

John Lothrop Motley, born in 1814 and died in 1877, was a student at Harvard and Göttingen, and afterwards secretary of the United States legation at St. Petersburg in 1841. His "Rise of the Dutch Republic" appeared in 1856 and displayed brilliant research and scholarship. From 1861 to 1868 he produced "The History of



JAMES RUSSELL LOWELL

the United Netherlands," a work of great value, and in 1874 appeared his "Life of John Barneveld." Mr. Motley was Minister to Austria from 1861 to 1867, and to England from 1869 to 1875.

Parkman

Francis Parkman, born in 1823, died in 1893, was at the time of his death the foremost American historian. His works relate chiefly to the rise and fall of French power in America, and are characterized by a graphic, picturesque style and thorough impartiality. The most important are "The Conspiracy of Pontiac,"

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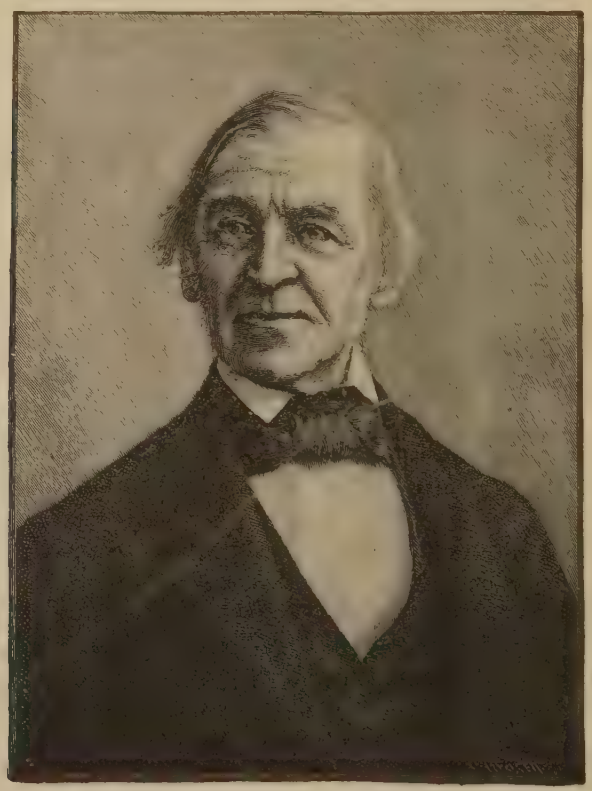
"Pioneers of France in the New World," "The Discovery of the Great West," "The Jesuits in North America," "The Old Régime in Canada," "Count Frontenac and New France under Louis XIV.," "Montcalm and Wolfe," and "A Half-Century Conflict."

George Bancroft, born in 1800, died in 1891, was the greatest of all American historians. Possessing abundant means, he was graduated at Harvard, studied in Germany, and upon his return to this country became prominent as a Democratic politician. The first volume of his history of the United States appeared in 1834 and quickly attained great popularity. The remaining volumes of this monumental work were regularly published until 1882. Although it stops before reaching our modern stage of development, it forms a magnificent library of itself of incalculable value to all students of the history of our country.

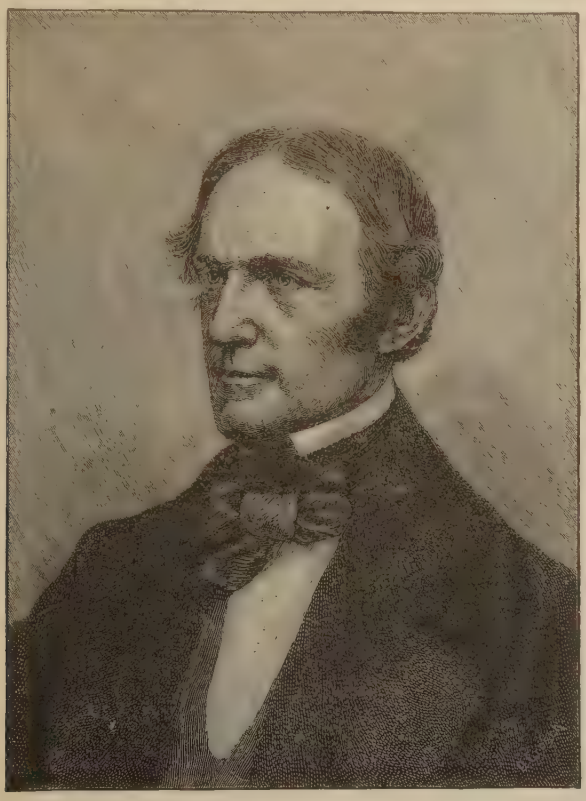


RALPH WALDO EMERSON

Bancroft

Mr. Bancroft was Secretary of the Navy under President Polk, 1845–46, established the Naval Academy at Annapolis in 1845, and in 1846 caused the seizure of California by Commodore Sloat. From 1846 to 1849 he was Minister to Great Britain, and from 1867 to 1874 Minister to Germany.

William L. Stone, born in New York State, 1792, died in 1844.



WILLIAM H. PRESCOTT

W. L. Stone, the Elder

After editing a number of newspapers, he took charge in 1821, of the N. Y. *Commercial Advertiser*. In 1832, he published a series of letters advocating the abandonment of Free Masonry, this advocacy being due to the excitement caused by the Morgan incident. He was the first superintendent of schools of New York City. He wrote and published extensively, his productions including "Border Wars of the American Revolution," "Life of Joseph Brant," "Life of Red Jacket," "Poetry and History of Wyoming," "Uncas and Miantonomah," "Maria Monk," and "Ups and Downs in the Life of a Distressed Gentleman."

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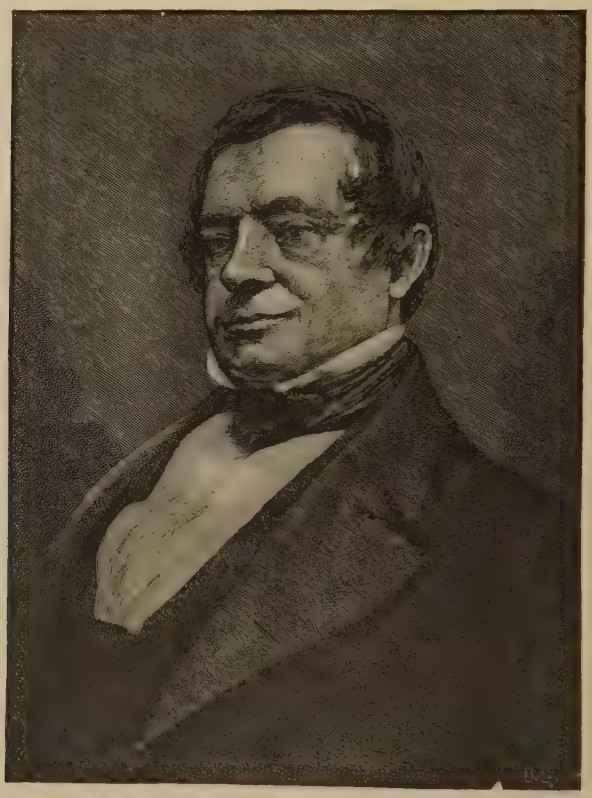
Washington Irving, born in 1783, died in 1859, issued in 1807, in partnership with his brother, the publication *Salmagundi*, whose vivacity roused general curiosity and admiration. In 1808 appeared his "Knickerbocker History of New York," one of the most humorous works that has ever appeared in any language. His

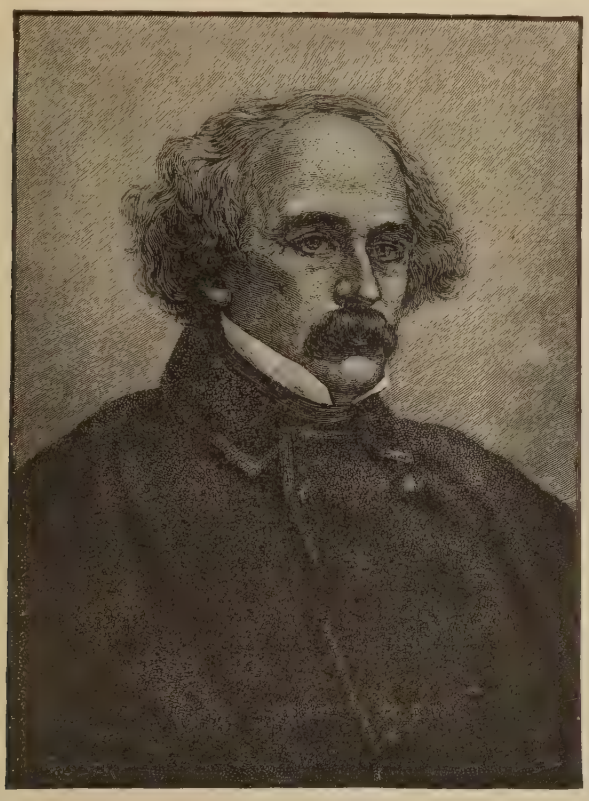


WASHINGTON IRVING

Irving "Sketch-Book," published in 1819, achieved a marked success. Then followed "Tales of a Traveller," "Life of Columbus," "The Conquest of Granada," and "The Alhambra," all of which added to and strengthened his reputation. His "Life of Washington," published in five volumes in 1855, is his most ambitious work. As an historian Irving lacks originality, but the smooth, exquisite grace of his style is a continual delight, fully the equal of Goldsmith, and surpassing perhaps that of any other American writer. The great

popularity of Irving in Europe and his native country was not wholly due to the charm of his writings, but partly to his genial personality, which left him at his death without an enemy. He was secretary of legation in London from 1829 to 1832, and Minister to Spain from 1842 to 1846.

Fitz-Greene Halleck, born in 1790, died in 1867, was one of the



NATHANIEL HAWTHORNE

most graceful and polished of our minor poets. He served as counting-room clerk for John Jacob Astor from 1811 to 1849. He was associated in 1819 with Joseph Rodman Drake in publishing the *Croakers*. His most widely-known poems are "Marco Bozzaris," "Twilight," "Fanny," "Address to Red Jacket," and "Young America." **Halleck**

Edgar Allan Poe, born in 1809, died in 1849, was a remarkable and erratic genius. He was a cadet for a time at the Military **Poe**

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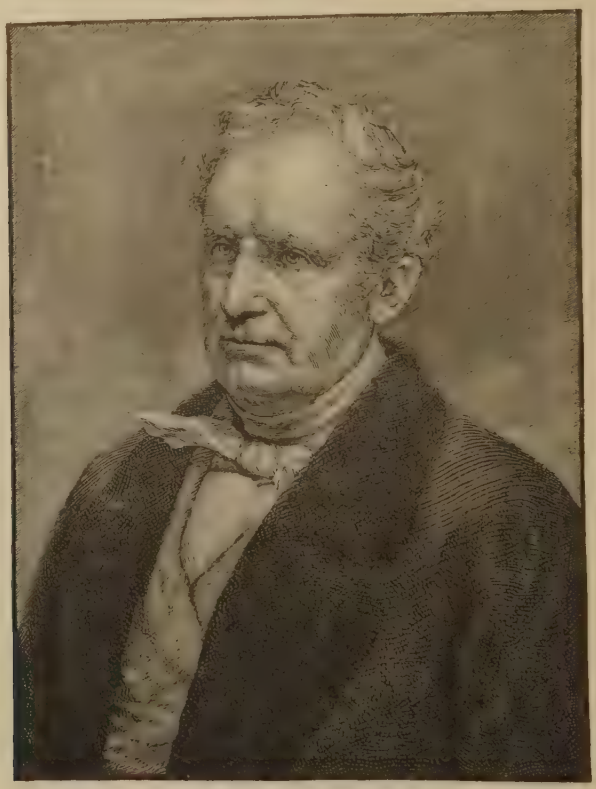
Academy at West Point, but became a wanderer, subject to varying moods and addicted at times to the wildest excesses. His death in a Baltimore hospital was due to his unfortunate weakness for strong drink, which seemed at times uncontrollable. As a critic he was incisive, sarcastic, and merciless. Many of his sketches displayed a



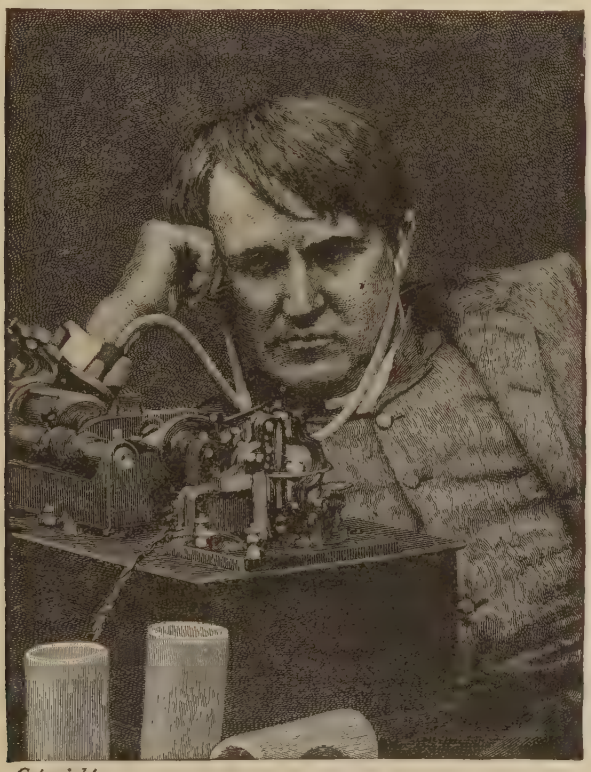
JAMES FENIMORE COOPER

gloomy, weird power united with wonderful grace and ingenuity His most widely-known poems are "The Raven" and "Annabel Lee."

Hawthorne

Nathaniel Hawthorne, born in 1804, died in 1864, was the most gifted of all American writers of romance. His perfect style renders his works classics that may well serve as models for those who come after him. He wrote at first for various periodicals, but his "Twice-Told Tales," published in 1837, and his "Scarlet Letter" in 1849, elevated his name beyond rivalry. He was a classmate and

intimate friend of President Pierce, who appointed him Consul to Liverpool in 1853, he retaining the office until the close of the Presidential term. It is a fact not generally known that Hawthorne was the author of the educational and juvenile works which appeared under the pen name of "Peter Parley" (S. G. Goodrich). Hawthorne



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THOMAS A. EDISON

wrote them when a young man, but never made any claim to their authorship.

Fenimore Cooper

James Fenimore Cooper, born in 1789, died in 1851, became famous through his romances of American history. He entered the navy in 1801 and resigned in 1811. He was thirty years of age before he seemed to suspect his latent powers. Then, it is said, he was so wearied one day with a novel he was reading, that he expressed the belief that he could do better work himself. The result was "The Spy," one of the finest of all historical romances. This

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was followed in time by the "Leatherstocking Tales," with others of less merit, some of which did not add to his reputation. His "Leatherstocking Tales," however, glow with the very poetry of the woods. One seems to scent the fragrance of the wild flowers, the odor of the bark, and to hear the sighing of the wind among the branches, the plash of the mountain streams, the cry of the wolf, the honk of the goose high in air, and the stealthy signals of the red men. His Indians and "Leatherstocking" himself are idealized, but they are none the less fascinating on that account, while his admirable style and purity of sentiment give his works a place in American literature which they will hold for generations to come.

Simms William Gilmore Simms, born in 1806, died in 1870, was the most prominent author of the South during the first half of the nineteenth century. He was an intense South Carolinian, though strongly opposed to nullification in 1832, and an ardent disunionist in 1860. The best of his poems is "Atlantis, a Tale of the Sea." He wrote a large number of romances, chiefly illustrative of Southern life, contributed many vigorous editorials to leading papers of his State, and was diligent with his pen to the last. Some of his work shows haste, but he possessed great virility and earned a creditable place in literature. Mr. Simms had the finest library in the South, but General Sherman, on his way from Atlanta to the sea, burned every volume, as well as the mansion and its furniture. "All that I saved," said Simms to the writer, "was a barrel of papers that happened to be at a neighbor's house."

Schoolcraft Henry R. Schoolcraft, born near Albany, 1793, died 1864, was a distinguished ethnologist and scientific writer. In 1818, he made a geological survey of Missouri and Arkansas. In 1820, he accompanied General Cass on his expedition to the Lake Superior copper region, of which he published a narrative in 1821. He married the daughter of a Chippewa chieftain in 1823, and while acting as Indian agent, in 1832, discovered the sources of the Mississippi river in Itasca Lake. In 1828, he founded the Michigan Historical Society. His ethnological writings, which were numerous, are among the most important contributions to American literature.

Gayarré Charles A. Gayarré, born in Louisiana, 1805, died 1895, published in 1847, "Histoire de la Louisiane," and later, "Louisiana: its History as a French Colony."

Hildreth Richard Hildreth, born in Massachusetts, 1807, died 1865, is best

known by his "History of the United States," but also published "Despotism in America," and "Theory of Politics," and contributed many able articles to the Boston *Atlas*, a noted Whig publication of which he was long associate editor.

Lossing

Benson J. Lossing, born in New York State, 1813, died 1891. He learned wood engraving, was an editor, and in 1850–52 produced "The Pictorial Field Book of the Revolution," in thirty illustrated parts. This was followed by "The Hudson from the Wilderness to the Sea," "Life and Times of Philip Schuyler," "Pictorial Field Book of the Civil War in the United States," and "Pictorial Field Book of the War of 1812." In addition, he published a large number of works, mostly of a biographical and historical character, relating to the United States. He also edited and annotated a number of volumes.

Fiske

John Fiske, born in Hartford, Conn., 1842, died 1901, was an indefatigable worker and hardly knew the meaning of a vacation. He stood pre-eminently for the best Boston traditions in moral or social life, as essayist, philosopher, historian and lecturer. The late Herbert Spencer said of him: "Beyond all question, he did an important service in diffusing, popularizing and elucidating the doctrine of evolution, while giving new illustrations and extension special to himself." When he entered Harvard at the age of eighteen, he not only possessed an excellent knowledge of the classics, but read Portuguese, Italian, German, Spanish and French, and knew considerable of Swedish, Danish, Dutch and other languages. His first book, "Myths and Myth-Makers," appeared in 1872, and his "Outlines of Cosmic Philosophy" two years later, being based upon a series of lectures delivered in 1869 and 1871. The work attracted marked attention on both sides of the Atlantic, and Mr. Fiske was launched upon his long career. "The Unseen World and Other Essays," "Darwinism and Other Essays," and "The Excursions of an Evolutionist" followed, and were succeeded by "The Destiny of Man" and "The Idea of God." His later years were devoted mainly to works on different epochs of American history. Physically he was of great bulk, and his death was due to exhaustion from extreme heat. Had he lived longer, he would have written a complete history of the United States, and the life of Christ, the Man, in the light of archæological discovery and modern thought.

Ridpath

John Clark Ridpath, born in Indiana, 1841, died 1900, took first honors at DePauw University in 1863, and six years later was called

to the chair of English literature in that institution, and was transferred later to the chair of history and political philosophy. He displayed ability to think clearly, speak fluently and to write with charming and graphic power. His first book, "Academic History of the United States," was published in 1874 and 1875, and proved

JOHN CLARK RIDPATH

highly popular. He abridged it into a "Grammar School History," which was widely used as a text book in schools. His "Popular History of the United States" appeared in 1876, and quickly attained a large circulation, being translated and published in German. His "Cyclopedia of Universal History," a work in four large octavo volumes, had an immense sale. His success as an author by this time (1885) was so assured that he made writing his life work. Ten years were spent in gathering the material for

"The Great Races of Mankind," his most important production, and four more years in moulding it into shape. Dr. Ridpath published the "Life and Times of Gladstone" in 1898, and a supplement to the "History of all Nations" for Webster's Dictionary. He was one of the editors of "The People's Cyclopedia," wrote numerous monographs, and spent the latter years of his life in preparing a complete and elaborate history of the United States.

H. H. Bancroft

Hubert Howe Bancroft, born in Ohio, 1832, and a resident of California, made his life-work the collection of a library of 60,000 volumes as materials for Pacific Coast history, and the publication of thirty-nine volumes covering the western part of North America, in which he had the aid of a large staff of collaborators.

Drake

Samuel Adams Drake, born in Boston, 1833, wrote many books descriptive of New England scenery, history and legend, such as "Historic Mansions and Highways Around Boston," "Heart of the White Mountains," "New England Legends and Folk Lore," "The Making of New England," "The Border Wars of New England," "Nooks and Corners of the New England Coast." He also wrote, "The Making of the Ohio Valley States," "The Campaign of Trenton," "The Making of Virginia," and other standard volumes.

Wm. L. Stone, the Younger

William L. Stone, the younger, born in New York, 1835, was the Centennial historian for the State of NewYork, at Philadelphia in 1876. Among his historical works are "Burgoyne's Campaign and St. Leger's Expedition," "History of New York City," "Third Supplement to Dowling's History of Romanism," and about ninety sketches in Appleton's General Cyclopedia and Appleton's Biographical Cyclopedia.

Hosmer

James K. Hosmer, born in Massachusetts, 1834, was professor of English and German literature in Washington University, St. Louis, from 1874 to 1892, since which time he has been librarian of the Minneapolis Public Library. His most important books are, "Short History of German Literature," "Story of the Jews," "Short History of Anglo-Saxon Freedom," "Short History of the Mississippi Valley," "History of the Louisiana Purchase," and "Life of Samuel Adams," in the "American Statesmen" series. He edited, in 1902, "The Expedition of Lewis and Clark," and acted in that year as president of the American Library Association.

Schouler

James Schouler, born at Arlington, Massachusetts, 1839, has been professor in the law school of Boston University, and lecturer at Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore. He is the author of "The Law

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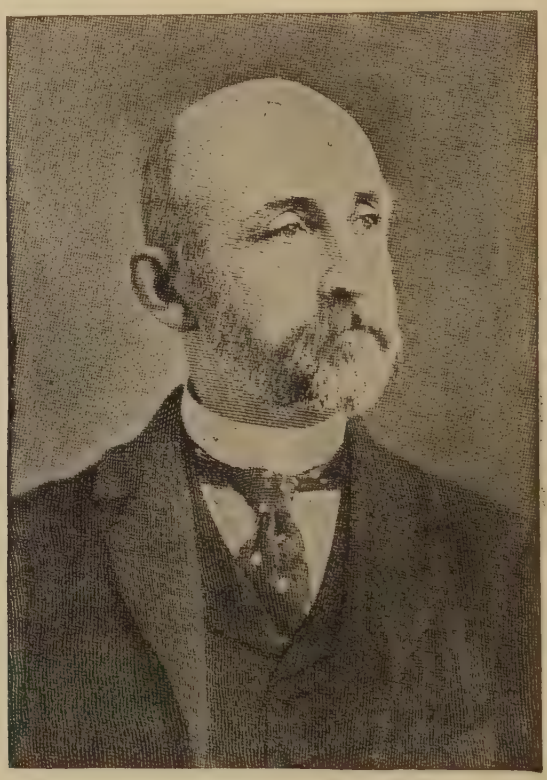
of Domestic Relations," "The Law of Bailments," "The Law of Personal Property," "The Law of Husband and Wife," "The Law of Executors and Administrators," "The Law of Wills," "Life of Thomas Jefferson," "Historical Briefs," "History of the United States," in six volumes, and "Alexander Hamilton."



ALFRED T. MAHAN

Mahan

Alfred T. Mahan, Captain U. S. N., retired, born at West Point, N. Y., 1840, was graduated from the U. S. Naval Academy at Annapolis. He served through the Civil War, and afterward in the Atlantic, Pacific, Asiatic and European squadrons; was President of the Naval War College, Newport, R. I., 1886–88 and 1892–93; and member of the Naval Advisory Board during the war with Spain. He has been President of the American Historical Institution, and is a life member of the Royal United Service Institution, England. He

is acknowledged on both sides of the Atlantic as an expert on naval subjects. Among his valuable works are, "The Gulf and Inland Waters," "Influence of Sea Power Upon History," "Life of Admiral Farragut," "Life of Nelson," "The Interest of the United States in Sea Power," "Lessons of the Spanish War," "The Problem of Asia," and "Types of Naval Officers."

Eggleston

Edward Eggleston, born in Indiana, 1837, died 1902, wrote novels which have been translated into several languages, but he regarded them only as an aid to his preparations for historical work. He wrote a number of school histories, and, in 1896 and 1900, published two volumes in what was intended to be an elaborate history of our country. These were entitled, "The Beginners of a Nation," and "The Transit of Civilization."

Andrews

Elisha B. Andrews, born in New Hampshire, 1844, has written "Institutes of Constitutional History, English and American," "Institutes of General History," "Institutes of Economics," "An Honest Dollar," "Wealth and Moral Law," "History of the United States," and "History of the Last Quarter Century in the United States." He has served as President of Denison University; Professor of Homiletics, Newton Theological Institution; Professor of History and Political Economy, Brown University; Professor of Political Economy and Finance, Cornell University; President of Brown University; and Superintendent of Schools, in Chicago. Since 1900, he has been Chancellor of the University of Nebraska.

Tyler, Johnston and Winsor

Moses Coit Tyler, an educator born in Connecticut, 1835, was appointed Professor of American History at Cornell University in 1881, and wrote "A History of American Literature," etc. He died in 1901. Alexander Johnston, born in Brooklyn, 1849, was in 1883 Professor of Jurisprudence and Political Economy at Princeton. He wrote a history of the United States, and "History of American Politics," and died in 1901. Justin Winsor, born in Massachusetts, 1831, died in 1897, was Superintendent of the Boston Public Library, 1868–77, and then became librarian of Harvard. He wrote a history of Duxbury, Mass., "Songs of Unity," "Bibliography of the Original Quartos and Folios of Shakspeare," "Reader's Hand Book of the Revolution," and a number of manuscripts on historical subjects, his greatest work being the "Narrative and Critical History of America," which is accepted as an authority on the subject.

Lodge

Henry Cabot Lodge, born in Boston, 1850, has represented

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Massachusetts in the United States Senate since 1893, and has written noteworthy books, such as "Essays on Anglo-Saxon Land Law," "Studies in History," "History of Boston," "Story of the American Revolution," "Short History of the English Colonies in America," and several volumes in the "American Statesmen" series.

McMaster

John Bach McMaster, born in Brooklyn, 1852, has been Professor of American History in the University of Pennsylvania since 1883. His "History of the People of the United States," in five volumes, is a masterly work. Other publications are, "Origin, Meaning and Application of the Monroe Doctrine," "Benjamin Franklin as a Man of Letters," "Daniel Webster," and "With the Fathers."

Wilson

Woodrow Wilson, born in Virginia, 1856, became Professor of History and Political Economy at Bryn Mawr College in 1885, and from 1888–90, acted in a similar capacity at Wesleyan University. In the latter year he accepted the chair of Jurisprudence and Politics at Princeton, and has been president of the University since 1902. His contributions to the magazines on the serious topics of the day, his talent as a lecturer, his high collegiate office, and his thoughtful and finished authorship, make him one of the foremost educators of the country. Among his works are, "Congressional Government, a Study in American Politics," "The State: Elements of Historical and Practical Politics," "Division and Reunion," "Mere Literature and Other Essays," "George Washington," and "A History of the American People."

Roosevelt

Theodore Roosevelt, President of the United States, has written several books that entitle him to mention in this chapter. They are, "Winning of the West," "History of the Naval War of 1812," "Ranch Life and Hunting Trail," "History of New York," "American Ideals and Other Essays," "Life of Oliver Cromwell," "Life of Thos. H. Benton," and "The Strenuous Life."

When we come to speak of the American songsters who have delighted and charmed their readers during and since the days of Bryant, Longfellow, Whittier, Holmes and Lowell, the list is long and of necessity incomplete; for, in many instances, the poet has uttered only one or two songs, and then remained mute. Some of the fugitive pieces, which appeared in obscure publications, displayed true poetic feeling, but they are so numerous that it is impossible to name even a majority of the productions. The following, therefore, is only a partial record, to which additions are continually

being made, with the certainty that, sooner or later, more than one of the authors will take rank beside the master poets of the past century.

Philip Freneau, born in New York City, 1752, died 1832, wrote poems while in college. President Jefferson appointed him translator for the Department of State. At the same time he assumed the editorship of the *National Gazette*, and greatly offended Hamilton by his attacks on the Federalists. "A Voyage to Boston" attracted general attention, in addition to which he wrote many pieces of a miscellaneous nature.

Freneau

Nathaniel P. Willis, born in Portland, Maine, 1807, died in 1870, was a brilliant and graceful writer of prose and poetry, and was very popular in the middle of the last century. George Pope Morris is remembered as one of the greatest American writers of songs. Though not the most ambitious of his efforts, the poem "Woodman, Spare that Tree," and others of simple sentiments, will live the longest. He was born in Philadelphia, 1802, and died in 1864.

Willis and Morris

Bayard Taylor came of Quaker stock, and was born in Pennsylvania, 1825, and died 1878. He was a great traveler. His various journeys included visits to California, Egypt, Palestine, Japan, China, India, Sweden, Denmark, Lapland, Greece, Russia, Crete, etc., descriptions of which were written with admirable power and skill. During these busy years his most spirited writings were in verse. These included "Rhymes of Travel," "Californian Ballads," "A Book of Romances," and "Poems of the Orient." He tried novel writing also, pleasing the popular taste, and produced several dramas.

Taylor

Walt Whitman, born on Long Island in 1819, died 1892, was called "The Good Gray Poet" by his friends among the critics. He traveled much over the country on foot, and chose the forces of nature for his principal themes in poetry. Disregarding the technical requirements of versification, he was startlingly original and he sometimes shocked by the directness of his language. His productions are "Leaves of Grass," "Drum Taps," "Passage to India," "After All Not to Create Only," "As Strong as a Bird on Pinions Free," etc. R. W. Emerson said of "Leaves of Grass," "I find it the most extraordinary wit and wisdom that America has yet contributed." Whitman's final poem was "Sands of Seventy."

Whitman

Albert Pike, born in Boston, 1809, died 1891, was a teacher in early life, and removing to Arkansas, edited the Arkansas *Advocate*

Pike

until 1834, when he became its owner and two years later sold the property. He served as a captain of cavalry in the war with Mexico, studied law, and made a large amount of money in advocating Indian claims before the Government. His best known poems are "Hymns to the Gods," "Ode to the Mocking Bird," "Ariel,"

ALBERT PIKE

"Lines Written on the Rocky Mountains," "To Spring," and "To Jupiter." He attained the rank of brigadier-general in the service of the Confederacy, but at Pea Ridge, the Indians under his command became uncontrollable and scalped friends and foes impartially. Pike's military career came to an inglorious ending. He was one of the most prominent Free Masons in the world, being 33rd M. P. Sovereign Commander of the Supreme Council for the Southern Jurisdiction of the United States.

Alice Cary, born near Cincinnati, 1820, wrote poems of exquisite delicacy and sweetness, collaborating with her sister Phœbe, who was one of the wittiest women in the country. Phœbe was the author of the hymn, "One Sweetly Solemn Thought," treasured by all the English-speaking world, and their joint volume, "Poems of Faith, Hope and Love," has comforted and cheered many hearts. The sisters were never separated, and died in the same year, 1871. **The Cary Sisters**

Julia Ward Howe, born in New York, 1819, is the author of the famous "Battle Hymn of the Republic," "Passion Flowers," "Later Lyrics," and prose works, including her "Reminiscences," published in 1899. She has been an active worker for woman suffrage, prison reform, international peace, etc., both as a lecturer and a writer. **Howe**

Alfred B. Street, born in New York State, 1811, died 1881, wrote poetry at an early age and attained a creditable rank, some of his productions being translated into German. He contributed sixteen poems to "Forest Pictures in the Adirondacks," and in 1866 his poetical works were collected and published in two volumes. From 1848 until his death he was State Librarian of New York. **Street**

Wm. Ross Wallace, born in Kentucky, 1819, wrote many vigorous poems for the leading periodicals of the day, often choosing patriotic themes, as "Of Thine Own Country Sing." He died in 1881. **Wallace**

Richard Henry Stoddard, poet and essayist, was born in Massachusetts, 1825, and died in 1903. He began writing early, and printed privately a collection of his poems. In 1880 he became literary editor of the *Mail and Express*. Among his noteworthy books are, "Adventures in Fairyland," "Songs of Summer," "Town and Country Life," "Life and Travels of Alexander von Humboldt," "The King's Bell," "Abraham Lincoln; a Horatian Ode," and others. He edited numerous works and annuals, and made several translations. **Stoddard**

Edmund Clarence Stedman, born in Connecticut, 1833, is the author of "Poets of America," and "Victorian Poets," and is himself a poet of no mean order. After the disastrous battle of Manassas, Lincoln read to his Cabinet Stedman's war ballad, "Wanted — a Man," which rings with sincerity and passion. His critical and poetical writings since 1860 fill many volumes. He has also edited the "Library of American Literature," "A Victorian Anthology," "An American Anthology," and the poems of Austin **Stedman**

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Dobson and Edgar Allan Poe. In the preparation of the latter work, which is in eleven volumes, he collaborated with Prof. Geo. E. Woodberry.

Aldrich

Thomas Bailey Aldrich, born in Portsmouth, N. H., 1836, is one of the most skilled American writers. He began his literary career by doing editorial work in New York. From 1865 to 1874 he conducted "*Every Saturday*," in Boston, and edited the *Atlantic Monthly* from 1881 to 1890, since which time he has devoted himself to authorship. His poems are most delicately conceived and executed, and his "Story of a Bad Boy," "Queen of Sheba," "Stillwater Tragedy," and other prose works are additions to the best in literature.

Trowbridge

J. T. Trowbridge, born in New York State, 1827, but a resident of Boston since 1848, has done excellent work in both prose and poetry, having published one or more books each year since 1853, besides attending to his editorial duties. He handles homely subjects in his poems, with a genial humor and tender pathos. His novels, "Neighbor Jackwood," and "Cudjo's Cave," were widely circulated during and after the Civil War, and "Jack Hazard" and many other boys' books attained great popularity.

Southern Poets

Paul Hamilton Hayne, was a highly-talented writer, born in Charleston, S. C., 1830. He published several volumes of poems, comprising war lyrics, quiet thoughts inspired by the study of nature, and domestic sketches. He died in 1886. Sidney Lanier, a Georgian poet, had a large nature and a sense of harmony of sound which is lacking in some of our noted poets. He suffered for years from an illness which ended his life in 1881, at the age of 39, but despite this handicap he produced work of a high order of merit. Abraham Joseph Ryan, known as "Father Ryan," was a beloved Southern poet, born in Virginia, 1839, died 1886. He was a Catholic priest and served as a Confederate chaplain during the Civil War. "The Conquered Banner" is a touching tribute to "The Lost Cause," while all his work breathes resignation, peace, and hope for troubled hearts.

Miller

Cincinnatus Heine, better known by his pen name "Joaquin Miller," stands at the head of Pacific Coast poets, and indeed his work has a glowing color hardly equaled by any other American. He was born in Indiana, 1841, but removed with his parents to Oregon when a boy. After a checkered life as miner, express mes-

senger, editor and lawyer in Oregon and Idaho, he went to London and there published his first volume of poems. It was favorably received and his literary standing has ever since been assured. He has resided on the heights near Oakland, overlooking the Bay of San Francisco, since 1887, and from this ideal environment has sent forth, "Songs of the Sierras," "Songs of the Sunland," "Memorie and Rime," "Songs of Far-Away Lands," "Chants for the Boer," "The Building of the City Beautiful," and other volumes.

Coolbrith and other Poets

Miss Ina D. Coolbrith, for many years librarian of the Oakland Public Library, displays the qualities of a genuine artist in her two collections of poems, "Songs from the Golden Gate," and "A Perfect Day and Other Poems." Herbert Bashford, born in Iowa, 1871, and Mrs. Ella Higginson, born in Kansas, 1862, have given us notable songs from the Northwest. Mr. Bashford contributes verse to the magazines, and has published "Songs from Puget Sea." Mrs. Higginson's books include two collections of poems, several volumes of short stories, and a novel, "Mariella of Out West," A career of remarkable promise was cut short in 1903 by the sudden death of Miss Virna Woods, of Sacramento, Cal. Of her lyrical drama, "The Amazons," Gladstone said, "I admire its poetic force and its Hellenic spirit." Her tragedies in blank verse were accepted by prominent actors for stage use, and it was during a visit to San Francisco to witness the first performance of one of her plays that she contracted her fatal illness. She was the author of several novels.

Phelps and Moulton

Elizabeth Stuart Phelps, born in Massachusetts, 1844, is an inspiring and spiritual writer who first gained fame as the author of "Gates Ajar," "The Gates Wide Open," and "The Gates Between." Numerous books followed, including "Poetic Studies," "Songs of the Silent World," and other poems of high order. A leading place among *literati* is occupied by Mrs. Louise Chandler Moulton, who, born in Connecticut, 1835, has published books since 1854, and is still a contributor to the magazines. Her winters are spent in Boston and her summers in London. In both cities her weekly receptions have long been the centre of attraction for authors and artists, and form the nearest approach to a salon now in existence. Her poems are exquisite, and as a critic she has settled the fate of many a book with her kindly, but keen and just opinions. Among her works are "Swallow Flights," "In the Garden of Dreams," "At the Wind's Will," and some graceful stories.

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In the opinion of many scholars, the poems of Professor Geo. E. Woodberry rank with the productions of James Russell Lowell. He was born in Massachusetts, 1855. After his graduation from Harvard, he was first Professor of English in the University of Nebraska, and a member of the editorial staff of *The Nation*. In 1891 he accepted the chair of Comparative Literature in Columbia University, resigning in 1904 to assume editorial duties with a publishing firm of New York City. His "North Shore Watch and Other Poems" was published in 1890, afterward came "Studies in Letters and Life," "Heart of Man," "Makers of Literature," "Nathaniel Hawthorne," "America in Literature," and a new collection of poems issued in 1904. He has edited "The Complete Poems of Shelley," also the Essays of Bacon and of Lamb, and is the editor of *The Journal of Comparative Literature*.

Prof. Woodberry

James Whitcomb Riley, born in Indiana, 1853, is known as "The Hoosier Poet," much of his verse being in the Western dialect. It has been collected in some eighteen volumes, the first of which is "The Old Swimmin' Hole and 'Leven More Poems." He has a strong hold on the hearts of the people. Essentially a poet of the children was Eugene Field, born in Missouri, 1850, but during most of his life a member of the staff on various Chicago newspapers. His deservedly popular works include "A Little Book of Western Verse," "A Little Book of Profitable Tales," "With Trumpet and Drum," etc. He died in 1895.

Riley and Field

Richard Watson Gilder, editor of the *Century*, and born in New Jersey, 1844, has published several volumes of verse. They are characterized by a fine receptiveness and a boldness of expression. John Vance Cheney, born in New York State, 1848, has a dainty art, evidenced in "Thistle-Drift," "Wood-Blooms," and "Out of the Silence." He is librarian of the Newberry Library, Chicago.

Gilder and Cheney

Edwin Markham, born in Oregon, 1852, was principal of a school in Oakland, Cal., when his poem, "The Man with the Hoe," first printed in the San Francisco *Examiner*, attracted general notice. After deciding to give his whole attention to literature, he removed to the State of New York. In his most recent volumes, "Lincoln and Other Poems" and "Field Folk," he shows power, fine imagery and poetic fervor. Frederick L. Knowles, born in Massachusetts, 1869, is a new poet of marked promise. His first book, "On Life's Stairway," was fresh and original, and the lyrics and sonnets of

Markham

Knowles

"Love Triumphant," issued in 1904, reveal a definite advance in mastery of his art.

Scollard and Butterworth

Clinton Scollard, born in New York State, 1860, is a graceful poet whose work finds ready acceptance in the magazines and has been issued in a number of volumes. Hezekiah Butterworth, born in Rhode Island, 1839, has composed some fine poems, which have been collected in two volumes. His work all counts for good and consists of more than fifty books, mostly for the young.

Dunbar

Paul Laurence Dunbar, born in Ohio, 1872, is the best representative of the African race in the poetic field. His poems have been published in a dozen or more volumes, the principal of which are "Lyrics of Lowly Life," "Folks from Dixie," "Lyrics of the Hearthside," "Poems of Cabin and Field," and "Lyrics of Love and Laughter." In addition, he is the author of the novels, "The Sport of the Gods" and "The Fanatics," and at this writing is busily engaged upon a play.

Foster

The plantation melodies, words and music, of Stephen C. Foster stamped him as a genius in his chosen field. In their peculiar sweetness they have never been surpassed. For "Old Folks At Home" he received $15,000. He was born in Pennsylvania, 1826, and died in 1864.

Other Poets

Louise Imogen Guiney, born in Boston, 1861, has attained high rank as a poet, besides doing excellent work in prose. Ella Wheeler Wilcox's work is voluminous, and shows a steady improvement with the passing years. She was born in Wisconsin, 1855. Harriet Prescott Spofford, born in Maine, 1835, has published several volumes of excellent verse, and a dozen or so books of fiction. Lilian Whiting is an accomplished critic of literature and art, and the author of refined and uplifting thoughts in her eleven volumes of prose and poetry. Lucy Larcom (died 1893), Edna Dean Proctor, Julia C. R. Dorr, Celia Thaxter (died 1894), Rose Terry Cooke (died 1892), Mary Mapes Dodge, Louise B. Edwards, and other women of talent and insight have contributed to American poesy.

The names of American story writers are legion. Although it is asserted that our representative novelist has not yet appeared, more than one have established their claims to a high place in imaginative literature.

Brown

Charles Brockden Brown, born in Philadelphia, 1771, died in 1810, was the first American novelist who devoted his life to litera-

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ture. His earliest publication was "Alcuin, a Dialogue on the Rights of Women," followed by "Wieland, or the Transformation," and "Ormond, or the Secret Witness." His "Arthur Mervyn" was a graphic picture of the desolation and ravages caused by yellow fever in Philadelphia in 1793. He wrote other novels, did editorial work, and issued a number of political pamphlets. Brown wrote too much, and his romances are not of a high order, though they were popular in their time. His imagination was powerful but sometimes morbid, his descriptive ability good, and his conceptions often intense.

Hale Edward Everett Hale, born in Boston, 1822, has been an editorial writer on numerous journals, and is the author of "The Man Without a Country," "Ten Times One is Ten," "My Double, and How He Undid Me," and other well-known stories. In 1856, he became pastor of the South Congregational (Unitarian) Church, Boston, and is still the pastor emeritus. He has been the promoter of Chautauqua Circles and "Lend a Hand" clubs, and a strong advocate of peace between nations. In 1902, he published "Memories of a Hundred Years," rich in reminiscence. He was appointed Chaplain of the United States Senate in 1903.

Mitchell Donald G. Mitchell, born in Connecticut, 1822, wrote delightful books under the pseudonym of "Ik Marvel." Among them are: "Reveries of a Bachelor," "Dream Life," "Rural Studies," "About Old Story-Tellers," "English Lands, Letters and Kings," "American Lands and Letters," and descriptions of life and scenes at Edgewood.

Higginson Thomas Wentworth Higginson, born in Cambridge, Mass., 1823, has published many books, including essays, biographies, histories, poems and tales, notwithstanding the fact that he did not begin literary work until he was forty years of age. After serving as a Colonel in the Civil War, he was long a leader in philanthropic and reformatory work, leaving the ministry for this purpose.

Howells William Dean Howells, born in Ohio, 1837, learned printing and did newspaper work in early life. Before he was appointed U. S. Consul to Venice, 1861, he had contributed poems to the *Atlantic Monthly*. He held editorial positions on the N. Y. *Nation* from 1865 to 1872, and for the next nine years was editor of the *Atlantic*. He was afterward connected with *Harper's Magazine* and the *Cosmopolitan*. Although his poems are graceful, his reputation rests mainly

upon his novels. He is the foremost of American authors in the field of realistic fiction. His works are numerous and include several minor dramas which are much admired for their humorous situations and cleverly managed dialogue.

Harte

Francis Bret Harte, born in New York State, 1839, died in 1902, went to California in 1854 and engaged in newspaper work, before becoming the founder and editor of the *Overland Monthly*, in which some of his most famous stories and poems appeared. He was appointed U. S. Consul at Crefeld in 1878, and transferred to Glasgow in 1880. The last years of his life were spent in London. His stories were of marked originality and depicted life in the mining camps of the Sierra Nevadas. Among them were: "The Luck of Roaring Camp," "The Outcasts of Poker Flat," "Story of A Mine," and "Tales of the Argonauts." His poem "The Heathen Chinee" did much toward establishing his literary reputation.

Jackson

Helen Hunt Jackson, born in Massachusetts, 1831, died 1885, was the accredited author of the "Saxe Holm" stories and poems, and also published, under the initials of "H. H.," "Mercy Philbrick's Choice," "Bits of Travel," and "Verses, Sonnets and Lyrics." After her second marriage, she traveled through the Territories and became interested in the Indian question. She was appointed by the Government to report on the condition and needs of the Mission Indians, and wrote, on this topic, "A Century of Dishonor" and "Ramona," one of the best known romances of California.

Stockton

Francis R. Stockton, born in Philadelphia, 1834, died 1902, began life as an engraver, but became a journalist and the author of quaintly humorous and original stories. The "Rudder Grange" tales were his first success. His most noted short story is "The Lady or the Tiger."

Mitchell

Dr. Silas Weir Mitchell, born in Philadelphia, 1830, writes excellent poetry and is the author of "Hugh Wynne," "Dr. North and His Friends," etc. A volume of unique interest, published in 1904, is "The Youth of Washington, Told in the form of an Autobiography." He is a prominent neurologist, and member of many scientific societies, including the British Medical Association.

Smith

One of the most popular authors of the day and an artist as well, is F. Hopkinson Smith, born in Baltimore, 1838. He was educated as a mechanical engineer, and built the Government sea wall around Governor's Island, the Race Rock lighthouse, and the foundation for the Bartholdi Statue of Liberty. He has done much landscape

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work, and lectured on art subjects. He excels in the portrayal of fine Southern character of the "old school," as described in "Col. Carter of Cartersville," "A Gentleman Vagabond," "Caleb West," and "The Fortunes of Oliver Horn."

Eggleston

George Cary Eggleston, born in Indiana, 1839, is the author of many books and has served as editor of the N. Y. *Evening Post*, *Commercial Advertiser*, and other papers. Some of his later books are: "A Carolina Cavalier," "Dorothy South," "The Master of Warlock," and "History of the Confederate War." He edited Hayden's "History of Dates," and compiled "American War Ballads."

Southern Writers

George W. Cable, born in New Orleans, 1844, has devoted himself entirely to literature since 1879, making a specialty of Creole life and character. Among his books are: "Old Creole Days," "The Grandissimes," "The Creoles of Louisiana," "The Silent South," "The Negro Question," "John March, Southerner," and "The Cavalier." Joel Chandler Harris, born in Georgia, 1848, was for twenty-five years editor of the Atlanta *Constitution*. He created the quaint character "Uncle Remus," whose sayings and doings fill several books, and also wrote "Stories of Georgia." "Stories of Home Folks," "The Making of a Statesman," and "Gabriel Tolliver." Thomas Nelson Page, born in Virginia, 1853, is the author of the character sketches "Meh Lady," "Marse Chan," etc., and the novels, "Red Rock," "The Old Gentleman in the Black Stock," "Social Life in Old Virginia," "Gordon Keith," and other volumes of local color. Ellen Glasgow, born 1874, is a Virginia author who has done strong work for her years, in the novels, "The Voice of the People," "The Battleground," and "The Deliverance." Mary Johnston, born in Virginia, 1870, has an assured place among the romancers of the present generation, her works being: "Prisoners of Hope," "To Have and to Hold," "Audrey," and "Sir Mortimer." John Esten Cooke, a native of Virginia who was born in 1830 and died in 1886, in addition to meritorious poetical work, wrote a "History of Virginia," "Life of Stonewall Jackson," "Life of Robert E. Lee," and several novels. Mrs. Burton Harrison, born in Virginia, 1846, completed her education abroad and has spent much time in Europe, although her residence is in New York. She has written many pleasing tales, among which are: "Bar Harbor Days," "The Anglomaniacs,"

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"Sweet Bells Out of Tune," "A Daughter of the South," and "A Princess of the Hills."

James

One of the most prominent names in the literature of the last twenty years is that of Henry James. He was born in New York, 1843, and educated abroad, early contributing to American journals from European cities. Since 1869 he has lived in England. He is a brother of Professor Wm. James, of Harvard. His fiction is realistic and embraces analytical character study. Among his numerous books are: "The Americans," "The Europeans," "Daisy Miller," "The Portrait of a Lady," "French Poets and Novelists," "The Bostonians," "The Better Sort," and "The Golden Bowl."

Murfree

Miss Mary N. Murfree is the exponent of mountain life in Tennessee. She was born in that State, in 1850. For years, during which her serials appeared in the *Atlantic Monthly* and afterward in book form, she concealed her identity and sex under the pen name of "Charles Egbert Craddock." Some of her works are: "In the Tennessee Mountains," "The Prophet of the Great Smoky Mountains," "The Despot of Broomsedge Cove," "In the Stranger People's Country," "The Mystery of Witchface Mountain," and "A Spectre of Power."

Fox

What Miss Murfree has done in her delineations of the Tennessee mountaineer, John Fox, Jr. is doing in the Kentucky field. Born in Kentucky in "the sixties," his first book, "A Mountain Europa," appeared in 1894. It was followed by, "A Cumberland Vendetta," "Hell-for-Sartain," and "The Little Shepherd of Kingdom Come," all showing great fidelity to nature in a strange mountain region where tragedy, pathos and simplicity are a part of everyday life.

Other Female Writers

The books of Mrs. Edith Wharton treat of the intense feelings of the human heart and in this field she is unsurpassed. She was born in New York, 1862. Her books are "Crucial Instances," "The Touchstone," "The Valley of Decision," and "The Descent of Man." Mary E. Wilkins-Freeman, born in Massachusetts, 1862, writes with finished art of odd characters in the rural communities of New England, usually selecting a minor key. Among her novels are: "A New England Nun," "Jane Field," "Giles Corey," and "The Portion of Labor." Her short stories fill several volumes. Sarah Orne Jewett, born in Maine, 1849, writes New England idyls, choosing cheerful country people and pleasant incidents for such books as, "Deephaven," "A Country Doctor," "The Country of the Pointed Firs," "The Tory Lover," etc. Miss Alice Brown,

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born in New Hamphire, 1857, charmingly describes the stern but grimly humorous characters of her native State in "Meadow Grass," "Tiverton Tales," and other volumes. Gertrude F. Atherton, though a resident of London, is an American author, a native of San Francisco. She deplores the commonplace in literature and fearlessly touches upon the seamy side of human nature in some of her novels. "The Doomswoman," her first publication, was a thrilling story of early days in California. This was soon followed by "A Whirl Asunder," "Patience Sparhawk and Her Times," "The Californians," "Senator North," "The Conqueror," "The Splendid Idle Forties," and others. "Rulers of Kings" was published in 1904. Louisa M. Alcott, born in Massachusetts, 1832, was widely known and beloved as the author of "Little Women," "An Old Fashioned Girl," "Little Men," "Aunt Jo's Scrap-Bag," etc. Kate Douglas Wiggin (Mrs. George C. Riggs), born in Philadelphia, 1857, has been a popular writer for children ever since her first delightful books, "The Birds' Christmas Carol," and "The Story of Patsy" were published, in 1888 and 1889. She is also the author of "A Cathedral Courtship," "Penelope's Progress," and other adult stories.

Alice French ("Octave Thanet"), born in Massachusetts in 1859, has given the public many graphic delineations of life in the South and West.

Other Novelists

Irving Bacheller, born in New York State, 1859, was connected with the press of New York City for years, as contributor and editor. He made his greatest literary success with the novel "Eben Holden," which was followed by "D'ri and I." He has a frank simplicity of style. "Vergilius," published in 1904, is a radical departure from his earlier work, treating of incidents prior to the birth of Christ. Robert W. Chambers, born in Brooklyn, 1865, received an art education in Paris, and is an illustrator for *Life*, *Truth* and *Vogue*, besides being a successful author. He shows a fertile fancy in his novels, "Cardigan," "The Conspirators," "The Maid-at-Arms," and "The Maids of Paradise." Charles Major, born in Indiana, 1856, wrote "When Knighthood Was in Flower," which had a wide circulation and was successfully dramatized. A later production was "Dorothy Vernon of Haddon Hall." Booth Tarkington, another Indiana author, born 1869, added to the laurels of his State by the production of the novels, "A Gentleman from Indiana," "Monsieur Beaucaire," and "The Two Vanrevels."

John Hay, born in Indiana in 1838, is gifted with rare literary

taste and ability, and is the author of many admirable works. He was private secretary of President Lincoln, secretary to Paris, Madrid, Vienna, chargè d'affaires, Vienna, first assistant secretary of state, ambassador to England and secretary of state under Presidents McKinley and Roosevelt. Among his productions are "Castilian Days," "Pike County Ballads," "Abraham Lincoln, a History" (with John G. Nicolay), "Poems," "Sir Walter Scott," and various addresses. So far as known, he has not denied the authorship of the popular novel, "The Bread Winners." As secretary of state Mr. Hay is conceded to be the equal in statesmanship to any of his predecessors in that exalted office.

Hay

Winston Churchill, born in St. Louis, 1871, possesses the narrative gift, and is a careful workman. He has chosen the line of historical fiction, for which he is specially qualified by his thorough knowledge of the history of our nation's growth, his broad sympathies, and his freedom from sectional prejudice. His leading works are, "Richard Carvel," "The Crisis," and "The Crossing." Stewart Edward White, born in Michigan, 1873, has drawn vivid word-pictures of the vast lumber regions of the North, and the phases of life in those isolated regions. His books are, "The Blazed Trail," "Conjuror's House," "The Silent Places," etc. Owen Wister, although a Philadelphian, born 1860, has located his character sketches on the great cattle ranges of the Western plains, giving us "Red Men and White," "Lin McLean," "The Virginian," and other stories that charm by their unconventionality. Frank Norris was a writer of serious purpose, born in 1870, who died in 1902, just as his place among the great writers of the day was beginning to be acknowledged. He was a war correspondent in South Africa and in Cuba before he began what he intended to be a trilogy on the industrial questions incident to the cultivation and marketing of the wheat of the world. He finished two powerful novels, "The Octopus" and "The Pit," with a realism that is epic; the third and concluding volume was destined to be unwritten.

Churchhill and Others

Jack London, born in San Francisco, 1876, has come rapidly into notice through his literary work in various fields. Whether picturing the dreary scenes of Alaska, as in "The Children of the Frost," "A Daughter of the Snows," and "The Son of the Wolf;" or the life of a sagacious dog, as in "The Call of the Wild;" or the slums of a great city, as in "The People of the Abyss,"—he writes with marked directness and power, and an artistic handling of the subject.

London

Cyrus Townsend Brady, born in Pennsylvania, 1861, took orders

Brady

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and was for some time an Episcopalian clergyman, but resigned to engage in literary work. He has a long list of books to his credit, the following having been published in 1903 alone: "The Southerners," "The Bishop," "The Conquest of the South West," "The Buccaneer," and "The Doctor of Philosophy."

Garland Hamlin Garland, born in Wisconsin, 1860, began story-writing in Boston, but returned to the West in 1893. He is a strong and realistic writer. His leading books are: "Main Traveled Roads," "Prairie Folks," "A Spoil of Office," "Rose of Dutchers Coolly," "Wayside Courtships," "Prairie Songs," and "The Captain of the Gray Horse Troop."

Conway Moncure D. Conway, born in Virginia, 1832, became a Unitarian minister after his graduation from Harvard. He edited *The Dial*, Cincinnati, and afterward the Boston *Commonwealth*. According to Charles Sumner, the influence of his pamphlet, "The Rejected Stone," was greater than any other published work toward hastening the emancipation of slaves. He lectured in England, and 1863–84 preached in South Place Chapel, London. His books include: "The Earthward Pilgrimage," "Idols and Ideals," "The Wandering Jew," "The Sacred Anthology," Lives of Edmund Randolph, Thomas Paine, Hawthorne and Carlyle, "Emerson at Home and Abroad," "Solomon and Solomonic Literature," etc. Much of interest regarding eminent men of letters in Europe and America is contained in his "Autobiography, Memoirs and Experiences," published in 1904.

Tarbell Ida M. Tarbell, born in Pennsylvania, 1857, has accomplished remarkable work in her "Short Life of Napoleon Bonaparte," "Life of Abraham Lincoln," and "History of the Standard Oil Company," besides writing numerous magazine articles on history and current topics. She has been associate editor of a leading magazine since 1884.

Whipple, Warner, Mabie and Lloyd Among the distinguished essayists and critics of the century was E. P. Whipple, born in Massachusetts, 1819, died 1886. He published two volumes of essays and reviews in 1849, and he acquired a high reputation as a lecturer on subjects connected with literature and life, many of the addresses being collected in book form. Charles Dudley Warner, born in Massachusetts, 1829, died 1900, conducted the "Editor's Drawer" and afterward the "Editor's Study" in *Harper's Magazine*, 1884–92. In 1896, he began the editorship of "Library of the World's Best Literature," a work in thirty volumes. Among his books are: "Backlog Studies," "In the Levant," "In the Wilderness," and "The Golden House." Hamilton W. Mabie, born in New York State, 1846, is associate editor of *The Outlook*, and the author

of "My Study Fire," "Short Studies in Literature," "Under the Trees and Elsewhere," "Essays in Literary Interpretation," "Books and Culture," "The Life of the Spirit," and "Parables of Life." Henry Demarest Lloyd, born in New York, 1847, in addition to writing numerous essays has given special attention to political economy. His "Wealth Against Commonwealth," Edward E. Hale declared to be as much an epoch-making book as "Uncle Tom's Cabin;" and R. L. Stevenson said, "He writes the most workmanlike article of any man known to me in America."

Gilder

Jeannette L. Gilder, born in New York State, 1849, is a leading critic. At eighteen she began newspaper work, showing such ability that she became editorially connected with *Scribner's Monthly* and the N. Y. *Herald*. She assisted her brother, Joseph B. Gilder, in starting *The Critic*, which she has since most ably edited. Besides newspaper correspondence, stories for magazines and plays, she has written, "Taken by Siege" and "Autobiography of a Tomboy," and edited a number of collections of essays, poems and sketches.

Repplier

Agnes Repplier, born in Philadelphia, 1855, is prominent as an essayist. She is the author of "Books and Men," "Points of View," "Essays in Idleness," "In the Dozy Hours," "The Fireside Sphinx," "Compromises," etc.

Matthews

Brander Matthews, born in New Orleans, 1852, has been Professor of Dramatic Literature at Columbia University since 1892. He was one of the founders of the Authors' Club and also The Players, and one of the organizers of the American Copyright League. He wrote of the French theatres and dramatists, and published "The Home Library," also "With My Friends," "Americanisms and Briticisms," "Introduction to the Study of American Literature," "The Historical Novel," "Parts of Speech," and other volumes of a critical nature. He wrote a number of comedies and edited several works.

Other Authors

The books of "New Thought" writers,—Ralph Waldo Trine, Charles Brodie Patterson, Henry Wood and Horatio W. Dresser,—express a philosophy that is eagerly read by tens of thousands. Such naturalists as John Burroughs, Bradford Torrey and Ernest Thompson-Seton produce magazine articles and volumes which are enjoyable to old and young. Our college presidents and professors, among whom are Benjamin Ide Wheeler, William James, Nathaniel S. Shaler, Felix Adler, William J. Rolfe, James H. Hyslop, Josiah Royce and Andrew D. White, have published valuable additions to literature and science. Although America has not yet produced the

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highest class of plays, David Belasco, Clyde Fitch, George Ade and others are writing successful dramas and comedies.

The great newspaper editors of the land, like Murat Halstead, Whitelaw Reid and Henry Watterson, have taken time from their journalistic duties to write books of value; and religious works are innumerable.

Fields

Probably the best known *littérateur* in the country was James T. Fields, the Boston publisher, who for many years acted as the connecting link between author and public, having a personal acquaintance with most of the famous literary men. Himself a poet, he edited, in conjunction with E. P. Whipple, "A Family Library of English Poetry," and wrote "Yesterdays with Authors." He was born in 1817 and died in 1881.

Clemens

The Americans have always been noted for their humor and wit. Brightness and cleverness are characteristics of many of our poets and novelists, while a number of writers have given their whole attention to that field. Samuel L. Clemens ("Mark Twain") ranks far above the ostensible humorists, for he is a master of serious prose and has produced literature that will live. His humorous works contain many passages of the finest workmanship, and in controversy, his logic, repartee and satire are of the keenest nature. Born in Missouri, in 1835, he learned the printer's trade, and at twenty was a Mississippi pilot. He roughed it in California, has lived abroad, has traveled extensively and is an industrious toiler with his pen. His laughable skit, "The Jumping Frog," drew attention to him, and he soon established his reputation as one of the most humorous of writers. His best known books are, "The Innocents Abroad," "Roughing It," "The Gilded Age" (written jointly with Charles Dudley Warner), "The Prince and the Pauper," "Life on the Mississippi," "Adventures of Tom Sawyer," "A Tramp Abroad," "Joan of Arc," "Adventures of Huckleberry Finn," and "Pudd'nhead Wilson."

Smith

A popular humorist and satirical writer, during the times of President Jackson, was Seba Smith, whose pen-name was "Major Jack Downing." He was born in Maine, in 1792, and after a career as editor in Portland, removed to New York in 1842 and died in 1868. His "New Elements of Geometry" was a whimsical attempt to overturn geometrical truths. He also wrote "Powhatan," a metrical romance, and "Way Down East." But his chief fame is as the reinventor (after Defoe) of that style of satire which consists of pretending to be one of the enemy in order to burlesque his opinions; this was far

more effectively carried out in the Civil War by "Petroleum V. Nasby" (David R. Locke). Seba Smith's wife, Elizabeth Oakes, aided him in editorial work and was the first woman in this country to appear as a public lecturer. She wrote a number of religious works, two tragedies, and was the pastor of an independent church in Canastota, N. Y.

Other Humorists

Among the distinctly humorous writers of recent years were: James Montgomery Bailey ("The Danbury News Man"), who was a genuine wit; Edgar William Nye ("Bill Nye"), who wrote some clever articles, but wrote too much; Henry W. Shaw ("Josh Billings"), who uttered some of the truest philosophy, as when he said: "The best way for a father to train up his son in the way he should go is to go that way himself;" Charles F. Browne ("Artemus Ward"), who beside possessing a quaint wit was able to make his spelling funny,—something that no American humorist before or since has been able to do; Robert H. Newell ("Orpheus C. Kerr"), a punster, parodist, and mocker of real force; and Henry C. Bunner, long editor of *Puck*, in the foremost rank of American story-tellers and graceful poets.

The most popular humorous writers living at this time (1904) are: Robert J. Burdette, born in 1844, a Baptist preacher, and a genius in his way; and Charles B. Lewis, whose resources seem to be inexhaustible. He was born in 1842 and is the creator of "The Lime Kiln Club," "Uncle Bijah," "The Arizona Kicker," and "Mr. Bowser." Finley Peter Dunne, born in 1867, says many bright things under the pen-name of "Mr. Dooley." Besides this list, there is hardly a community in the Union which has not one or more persons with a local, but none the less deserved reputation for wit. Chauncey Depew and Joseph H. Choate are famous after-dinner speakers, while Simeon Ford has no superior in that line.

Turning from literature to the field of invention, it may be said that we enter upon a domain that is boundless. Vast fortunes have been made, and equally vast fortunes await the men and women able to evolve successful and practical ideas. The Americans are a nation of inventors, as is proved by the fact that, since the establishment of the Patent Office in 1836, the number of patents granted is fast approaching the million mark.

Peter Cooper

Peter Cooper, born in 1791, and died in 1883, was noted as a philanthopist, but he greatly aided in the industrial development of the United States, being identified, as has been shown, with the introduction of the locomotive in this country. In 1854–59, he

erected the "Cooper Union for the Advancement of Science and Art," in which the working-people receive free instruction. Mr. Cooper was the Presidential nominee of the National Independent Party in 1876. His quaint figure was familiar for years in the city of New York, where his integrity of character and his liberal, practical charity made him loved by the poor and respected by all.

Goodyear Charles Goodyear, born in 1800, died in 1860, succeeded, after long experimenting, in discovering the vulcanizing process by which india-rubber is rendered useful—an invention that has proved worth many millions.

Morse Samuel F. B. Morse, born in 1791, died in 1872, was the inventor, as related elsewhere, of the electromagnetic telegraph, an invention so important that it marked an era in the progress of civilization.

Whitney Eli Whitney, born in 1765, died in 1825, produced the cotton-gin, which wrought an industrial revolution in the South. In 1791 the exportation of cotton was 189,500 pounds, but under the impulse of the cotton-gin it increased in twelve years to 41,000,000 pounds. It has been said that but for the cotton-gin there never would have been a Civil War, since the South otherwise could not have gained the wealth and power to enter upon that mighty struggle. Whitney's patents were so enormously valuable that several States refused to pay him his just royalties, and Congress would not grant the patents to which he was entitled. He established near New Haven, in 1798, the first arms factory in the United States, and furnished the Government with a superior quality of firearms. He was the first manufacturer to construct the parts of guns after one unvarying model, so that any damaged part could be replaced from the general stock.

Colt Samuel Colt, born in 1814, died in 1862, ran away to sea when a boy, and when fifteen years old whittled out a model of his celebrated revolver. This was the germ of his vast enterprise and wealth, and made him famous the world over. His immense armories for the manufacture of revolvers were erected at Hartford in 1852.

Hoe Richard M. Hoe, born in 1812, died in 1866, made improvements and inventions in perfecting printing-presses that approach the marvellous. His most striking achievement is a press that will print, cut, and fold a sheet of paper a sixth of a mile long in the space of a single minute.

Cyrus West Field, born in 1819, died in 1892, was a business man

in New York until 1853. His success in carrying out his idea of laying a submarine cable across the Atlantic in 1858 has been told elsewhere. The New York, Newfoundland and London Telegraph Company that he formed consisted of Peter Cooper, Moses Taylor, Marshall Roberts, and Chandler White. Messages passed back and forth, but the cable utterly failed at the end of a few weeks. Undaunted, Mr. Field organized the Atlantic Telegraph Company, and in 1866 the submarine cable triumphed. Mr. Field received the honors due him both at home and abroad, and afterwards greatly aided in improving the rapid-transit system of New York.

Field

The sewing-machine is one of the most useful inventions of the age. There were crude attempts at the construction of such a machine during the early years of the century, but the first successful machine was made in 1846 by Elias Howe, who was born in 1819 and died in 1867. Like Professor Morse, Howe almost suffered the pangs of starvation while working at his invention, but he persevered and became a multi-millionaire who loaned large sums of money to the Government during the Civil War. He served in a Connecticut regiment, and, as told elsewhere, it was he who advanced funds sufficient to pay several months' arrears to all the members of his regiment.

Howe

Cyrus H. McCormick, born in 1809, died in 1884, invented the reaping-machine in 1831. This, after a number of improvements, proved so far-reaching in its benefits that it gave a distinct impulse to agricultural development and added untold value to hundreds of thousands of acres of waste land.

McCormick

The history of the steamboat and the connection of Robert Fulton therewith has been fully given. While yielding Fulton full credit for his work, there can be no question that John Fitch, born in 1743 and died in 1798, was much earlier than he in the field, one of his boats on the Delaware being propelled by steam in 1785, while James Rumsey, born in the same year in Maryland, invented a steamboat in 1786, but died in 1792, before his experiments were completed.

The Steamboat

Alexander Graham Bell, the inventor of the telephone, was born in Scotland in 1847, and first exhibited his invention in Philadelphia in 1876.

Bell

Thomas Alvin Edison, born in 1847, is perhaps the most wonderful inventor and discoverer of the age. A poor newsboy on a rail-

Edison

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way train, rendered partially deaf by the cuffings received from an employee made indignant by the lad's persistent experimenting with chemicals in the baggage-car, he still persisted until he astonished the world by electrical inventions which a few years ago would have been considered as among the fancies of the wildest dreamers. Some of his astounding achievements include the quadruplex system of telegraphy, the carbon telephone, the phonograph, the microphone, the vinetoscope, the microtasimeter, and the kinetoscope. Mr. Edison is a tireless student and worker, constantly delving into the mysterious recesses of nature, and certain, if his life is spared, to make still more amazing discoveries and inventions. In this great field he has the help of the Servian professor, Nikola Tesla, whose inventive genius is scarcely second to that of Edison himself. Tesla's most astounding discovery was announced in June, 1897. It was that after years of study and experimentation he had solved the problem of telegraphing without wires. Although making slow but steady progress, and hopeful from the first, Tesla modestly withheld any positive announcement until he had actually sent and received signals through the earth at a distance of twenty miles. Mr. Tesla believes that a result of immeasurable importance will follow this achievement: that is, the ability to transmit power from place to place. If ever the marvelous dream of communicating with the inhabitants of other worlds is realized, it will be through this wonderful discovery.

Tesla

In 1904, a wireless telephone was proved practical, and the announcement was made about the same time that the origin of the elements is certain soon to be discovered, or at least carried far back of the present tables of elementary substances.

Some of the greatest discoveries in the fields of science have been made by foreigners; but the belief that our scientists are to have a share in bringing more marvelous truths to light, in these and in other lines of scientific research, which indeed they help largely to develop, is our excuse for citing such foreign labors in this place.

The "X" Rays

One of these discoveries is the Roentgen Electrical Ray, the result in 1896 of the labors of Dr. W. C. Roentgen, of the Physical Institute of the University of Würzburg. This town is one of the most ancient in Germany, dating from the seventh century, before Charlemagne. As every one knows, it is the practice, in solving algebraical problems, to represent the unknown quantity by the symbol X. Uncertain

as to the exact nature of the rays which he was investigating, Dr. Roentgen, for the sake of brevity, called them "the X rays." The eminent discoverer evolved the hypothesis and provisionally adopted it of "longitudinal vibrations in the ether," in contrast with the transverse vibrations which are regarded as the cause of light. The efficiency of these rays in photography, in taking a picture of the bones, ossified tumors, or of foreign substances like bullets or bits of metal, through the flesh, because the flesh is transparent to the peculiar rays, is one of the most amazing revelations of science, and can not fail to have a beneficial effect in surgery.

Investigations of Hertz, Lenard and Crookes

Previous to this remarkable discovery, Henry Hertz, the distinguished German physicist, at Bonn, had been experimenting, before his death in 1894, with electric waves, and demonstrated that they act in all circumstances precisely as do those that produce light. This fact was accepted as final proof that light waves themselves are electric, or at least that the names "light" and "electricity" do not denote independent forms of force or matter. P. Lenard, the pupil and successor of Hertz, investigated certain electric waves, whose character had been demonstrated by Professor William Crookes. Professor Crookes experimented with the action of electricity inside a glass tube or bulb, whose interior was almost an absolute vacuum. The results of these investigations were presented to the British Association at its annual meeting in Sheffield, in August 1879. In his experiments, Professor Crookes succeeded in reducing the air in the bulbs to one-millionth of what it would naturally contain.

Argon

An interesting discovery in 1895 was that atmospheric air, which had been supposed the most assuredly analyzed of any substance in creation, contains in fact nearly one per cent. of a gas which has been named argon ("inert"), on account of the impossibility of making it combine with any other substance. This element was isolated by Lord Rayleigh (formerly Mr. Strutt), a physicist, and Prof. William Ramsay, a chemist; and then it was found that the great English chemist, Cavendish, had discovered it over a century before. Since then several other constituents of air have been revealed: helion ("of the sun," because found by the spectroscope in the sun's rays), krypton ("concealed"), neon ("new"), and others.

Radium

Radium is the most wonderful of all known substances. The astounding fact regarding this new element is, that it does not fit into our present chemical system; disregards all our elaborately

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framed laws, and threatens to overturn the scientific teachings of centuries. It must be said, however, that the latest investigations cast grave doubt on its being an element; but this only increases its mystery, since if it is a quality or a force it is far more inexplicable.

Uranium

To M. Henri Becquerel, a French chemist, was due the discovery of the uranium rays, which resembled the X rays in their power to penetrate opaque objects. Uranium is gained from pitchblende, an ore found in Bohemia, Saxony and Cornwall, also in Colorado and probably other sections of our own country, since new discoveries of its existence are reported from time to time. Its use had hitherto been solely, through its salts, in making a rich dark pigment much used in pottery, but not indispensable; but the extraordinary interest of its new contents has led to an eager search for it by spectroscopic investigation. Becquerel was interested only in uranium, and gave no attention to the residue of pitchblende. Meanwhile, Madame Sklodowska-Curie, a Polish woman of remarkable scientific attainments, in her investigations of luminous substances, added two new

New Elements

elements to the seventy-odd in the known list. The outlook was so promising that her husband, Professor Pierre Curie, of the École Polytechnique at Paris, collaborated with her. Their labors were beset with the greatest difficulties, but they were never discouraged, and persevered until the grandest of rewards came to them. Two new elements, as stated, were brought to light. Madame Curie named one "polonium" after the land of her birth, and the other "radium." Each was radio-active. Radium is obtained from pitchblende, only in infinitesimal quantities and after the most laborious, careful and extended processes. It is believed that there is not at the present time, two ounces of radium in existence. The tiny pellet in the possession of Professor Curie is worth twenty thousand dollars, though it weighs only half a drachm. It is hoped, however, that the price will soon be reduced to one or two million dollars a pound. Radium in appearance resembles table salt.

Among the unexplainable properties of this wonderful substance, which have thus far baffled the profoundest scientists, are the following: In its photographic action, it penetrates opaque objects as readily as sunlight passes through glass; it transforms oxygen into ozone; brought in contact with the temples of a blind man, it will produce the sensation of light on the retina; applied too long to normal persons, it paralyzes the optic nerve; applied to the unprotected nerve-centers of small animals, it kills; two or three pounds reposed in a

room would probably blind or cause the death of every person present; it destroys the germinating power of seeds, and is certain to prove highly useful in curing certain skin diseases; it causes some normally inactive substances to glow; and it maintains a heat two or three degrees above the surrounding atmosphere (the last two properties were never seen before). More incomprehensible than all these, perhaps, is the fact that radium maintains its temperature, and gives out heat, seemingly without the slightest diminution of energy, and without combustion or chemical change of any nature whatever. It is as if Christopher Columbus had set fire to one of his caravels, in mid-Atlantic, and that it had remained burning fiercely ever since, with the certainty that it would do so for many centuries to come. It looks as if the law of the conservation of energy is shattered, though it is incomprehensible how that can be; more likely it indicates a source of replenishment of energy in the universe which is beyond our present theories. Atoms, as the indivisible and unalterable particles of all substances, discovered and accepted a hundred years ago, now give place to "electrons," of which the emanations from radium are partly composed, and which are minute electrified masses. If the atom is retained,—and the chemical facts of which it is the basis remain unaffected,—it must be accepted as composed of an entire stellar system of "electrons," all in orbital motion; in other words, "atom" becomes the name not of the ultimate components of matter, but of complexes which play the part of indissoluble unities in the world as we know it. The field of investigation thus opened is profoundly fascinating.

Mysterious Properties

Patents

The Constitution gives to Congress the power to issue patents for useful inventions. Previous to the adoption of the Constitution several patents had been issued by the States. The first patent law was passed in 1790, and applied equally to foreigners and citizens, the duration of the patent being fourteen years. In 1793 the act was restricted to citizens only, the fee was made thirty dollars, and no State was allowed to grant patents. In 1836 the Patent Office or Bureau was created, the chief officer being the commissioner of patents. The Patent Office was transferred to the Department of the Interior in 1849, when the latter was created. A law was passed in 1836 requiring a preliminary examination to determine the novelty and patentability of inventions. The law of 1842 made the term of a patent seven years, afterward extended to seventeen years. In 1870 a law was enacted granting patents to any person who can prove the newness and usefulness of his invention, upon the payment

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of a stated fee. Models are no longer required. The total cost of securing a patent is from $60 to $70.

Copyrights

The history of the copyright laws is somewhat similar to that of patents, the States having issued copyright privileges previous to the adoption of the Constitution. The first law, 1790, gave to authors exclusive rights to their works for fourteen years, with the right of renewal for the same term. In 1831 the term was made twenty-eight years, with the right of renewal for fourteen years, this law being still in force. A publisher to whom an author sells his work can copyright it for twenty-eight years, but at the end of that period the right of renewal reverts to the author or his heirs, the production becoming his or their exclusive property. At the end of forty-two years from the date of the first copyright all copyrights lapse and the works become public property.

In 1891 Congress gave the privileges of copyright to foreigners of nations whose governments accord American citizens similar privileges, the reciprocity being determined by proclamation of the President. It was immediately extended to Great Britain, France, Belgium, and Switzerland, and afterwards to Germany and Italy. The need of a direct, plainly expressed international copyright law has long been recognized, and action looking to that end has been under way for many years.

Washington Monument in Philadelphia

The monument which was unveiled to the memory of Washington, in Fairmount Park, Philadelphia, May 15, 1897, is the most important group of sculpture ever raised in America. Upon a platform, six feet six inches in height, and reached from four sides by thirteen steps, symbolical of the thirteen original States, stands a pedestal bearing an equestrian statue of the Father of his Country. He is represented in the colonial uniform of the American army, with a large military cloak enveloping his superb figure. In his left hand he holds the reins of his horse, one of the animal's fore-feet being raised in the act of moving. The massive figure is dignified, artistic, and impressive.

The fountains at the four corners of the platform, served by allegorical figures of American Indians, represent four rivers, the Delaware, Hudson, Potomac, and the Mississippi. Each of these fountains is guarded on the sides by typical American animals, eight in all. Two allegorical figures are at the front and back of the pedestal. The one on the front represents America seated, and holding

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THE WASHINGTON MONUMENT, FAIRMOUNT PARK, PHILADELPHIA, PA.

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in one hand a cornucopia; in the other a trident and having at her feet chains just cast off, while she is in the act of receiving from her victorious sons the trophies of her conquest. Below the group is an eagle supporting the arms of the United States. The group in the back depicts America arousing her sons to a sense of their slavery. The arms of Pennsylvania are below. On the sides of the pedestal are two bas-reliefs, one representing the march of the American army, the other a Western-bound emigrant train. The pedestal bears on one side the inscription, "Sic Semper Tyrannis," and "Per Aspera ad Astra"; on the other, "Westward the Star of Empire Takes Its Way." Surrounding the upper portion of the pedestal are the words: "Erected by the State Society of the Cincinnati of Pennsylvania." The statue, the figures and the bas-relief, and all the ornamentations are of bronze, and the platform, pedestal, etc., of Swedish granite.

History of the Monument

The ground plan of the monument is 61 feet by 74 feet, the pedestal 17 feet by 30 feet, and the total height of the monument 44 feet. The design is by Prof. Rudolph Siemering, the renowned sculptor of Berlin. The names engraved on the monument are: Lincoln, Irvine, Jay, Dickinson, Mühlenberg, Jefferson, Franklin, Hamilton, Clinton, Knox, Pinckney, Hazen, Putnam, Wayne, Steuben, Butler, Lafayette, St. Clair, Greene, Morgan, Kosciusko, Schuyler, Jones, Dale, and Barry (the last three representing the navy), Biddle, Montgomery, Haslett, Kirkwood, Mifflin, Rochambeau, Varnum, Sullivan, Cadwalader, Mercer, Smallwood, Sterling, Nash, Warren, De Kalb, and Moultrie.

The collection of subscriptions for this monument was begun in 1811 by soldiers who had fought under Washington. On the 4th of July of that year, the Society of the Cincinnati met in the State House and took steps to set on foot the erection of a monument which should fittingly commemorate the character and virtues of Washington. In response to their appeal, $2,000 was subscribed. This by careful handling, investment, and additions grew to the handsome sum of $280,000.

Unveiled by President McKinley

On Saturday, May 15th, amid an imposing military display, the monument was unveiled by President McKinley. At two o'clock Bishop Whitaker, of Pennsylvania, opened the ceremonies with prayer. An address followed by Major William Wayne, president of the state and general societies of the Cincinnati. President

McKinley then pulled the cord which unveiled the figure of Washington. Immediately the national salute was fired by the war-vessels in the Delaware and the artillery. President McKinley then said:

"FELLOW-CITIZENS: There is a peculiar and tender sentiment connected with this memorial. It expresses not only the gratitude and reverence of the living, but is a testimonial of affection and homage from the dead.

"The comrades of Washington projected this monument. Their love inspired it. Their contributions helped to build it. Past and present share in its completion, and future generations will profit by its lessons.

"To participate in the dedication of such a monument is a rare and precious privilege. Every monument to Washington is a tribute to patriotism. Every statute and shaft to his memory helps to inculcate love of country, encourage loyalty, and establish a better citizenship. God bless every undertaking which revives patriotism and rebukes the indifferent and lawless! A critical study of Washington's career only enhances our estimation of his vast and varied abilities.

Speech of the President

"As commander-in-chief of the Colonial Armies from the beginning of the war to the proclamation of peace, as President of the convention which framed the Constitution of the United States, and as the first President of the United States under that Constitution, Washington has a distinction differing from that of all other illustrious Americans. No other name bears or can bear such a relation to the Government. Not only by his military genius—his patience, his sagacity, his courage, and his skill—was our national independence won, but he helped in largest measure to draft the chart by which the nation was guided, and he was the first chosen of the people to put in motion the new Government.

"His was not the boldness of martial display or the charm of captivating oratory, but his calm and steady judgment won men's support and commanded their confidence by appealing to their best and noblest aspirations. And withal Washington was ever so modest that at no time in his career did his personality seem in the least intrusive. He was above the temptation of power. He spurned the suggested crown. He would have no honor which the people did not bestow.

THE NEW CONGRESSIONAL LIBRARY BUILDING, WASHINGTON, D. C.

"An interesting fact—and one which I love to recall—is that the only time Washington formally addressed the Constitutional Convention during all its sessions over which he presided in this city, he appealed for a larger representation of the people in the national House of Representatives, and his appeal was instantly heeded. Thus was he ever keenly watchful of the rights of the people in whose hands was the destiny of our Government then and now.

Washington's Statesmanship

"Masterful as were his military campaigns, his civil administration commands equal admiration. His foresight was marvellous; his conception of the philosophy of government, his insistence upon the necessity of education, morality, and enlightened citizenship to the progress and permanence of the republic, cannot be contemplated even at this period without filling us with astonishment at the breadth of his comprehension and the sweep of his vision.

"His was no narrow view of government. The immediate present was not his sole concern, but our future good his constant theme of study. He blazed the path of liberty. He laid the foundation upon which we have grown from weak and scattered colonial governments to a united republic whose domains and power, as well as whose liberty and freedom, have become the admiration of the world. Distance and time have not detracted from the fame and force of his achievements or diminished the grandeur of his life and work. Great deeds do not stop in their growth, and those of Washington will expand in their influence in all the centuries to follow.

"The bequest Washington has made to civilization is rich beyond computation. The obligations under which he has placed mankind are sacred and commanding. The responsibility he has left for the American people to preserve and perfect what he accomplished is exacting and solemn. Let us rejoice in every new evidence that the people realize what they enjoy and cherish with affection the illustrious heroes of Revolutionary story, whose valor and sacrifices made us a nation. They live in us and their memory will help us keep the covenant entered into for the maintenance of the freest government of earth.

Our Responsibility

"The nation and the name of Washington are inseparable. One is linked indissolubly with the other. Both are glorious, both triumphant. Washington lives, and will live, because what he did was for the exaltation of man, the enthronement of conscience, and the

establishment of a government which recognizes all the governed. And so, too, will the nation live victorious over all obstacles, adhering to the immortal principles which Washington taught and Lincoln sustained."

An impressive illustration of American genius is the new Congressional Library Building recently completed in Washington. It is of New Hampshire granite and stands on the eastern heights of

THE NEW CONGRESSIONAL LIBRARY—ROTUNDA

the city, opposite the east front of the Capitol. The great structure covers nearly four acres, and within its vast interior is room for twice as many books as are contained in the largest library in the world.

The main entrance is by three arched doorways, leading into a magnificent entrance hall, lined with polished marble. Two flights of marble stairs lead upward to the right and left, the balustrades, in high relief, representing a series of cherubs, depicting science, art, industry, and the various pursuits of man. Opposite the entrance doors, between the two flights of stairs, is a portal of marble, leading to the rotunda or reading-room. The beautiful sculptured figures of a youth and an old man are the work of Olin L. Warner, of

New York. The library is planned as a central circular reading-room, flanked on the north and south by two halls, in each of which is a book-stack of iron and marble extending upward nine stories, and capable of holding a million volumes each. On the eastern side a smaller book-stack will hold a quarter of a million volumes, with room for as many more in alcoves around the rotunda. The building will answer all the needs of our country for more than a hundred years to come.

The cost of the structure was limited to $6,000,000, and none but American artists were employed to decorate the walls. The octagonal reading-room is a hundred feet in diameter, with the richly ornamented dome one hundred and twenty-five feet above the mosaic pavement.

Number of Volumes

The Congressional Library contains about seven hundred thousand volumes, and ranks fifth among the great libraries of the world. It was established during the Presidency of Jefferson, but the modest collection went up in smoke when the British burned Washington in the summer of 1814. Congress promptly voted money for the purchase of new books, and for rebuilding. In 1851 a second fire destroyed a part of the library and thirty-five thousand volumes.

The work of carrying out the plan of the building came under the charge of General Casey, chief of engineers, in October, 1888, and in December, 1896, Mr. Green, his successor, reported the structure as "very nearly completed in all particulars." For ages to come the Congressional Library will form one of the grandest educational landmarks in the history of our country.

The Mayflower Log

A pleasing incident of the closing days of Ambassador Bayard in England was the return to him of the famous log of the *Mayflower*, which interesting document was delivered by Mr. Bayard to Governor Wolcott in Boston, on May 26, 1897, the ceremonies taking place before a distinguished gathering in the House of Representatives, including both branches of the legislature and the executive council. Senator Bradford, of Hampden, a lineal descendant of the author of the manuscript history, offered a resolution of thanks to the Bishop of London, the English Consistorial Court, and the Queen of Great Britain for restoring the manuscript, which resolution was unanimously adopted.

The title of this historical document is a misnomer, for in truth, so far as known, there has never been a log of the *Mayflower*. The

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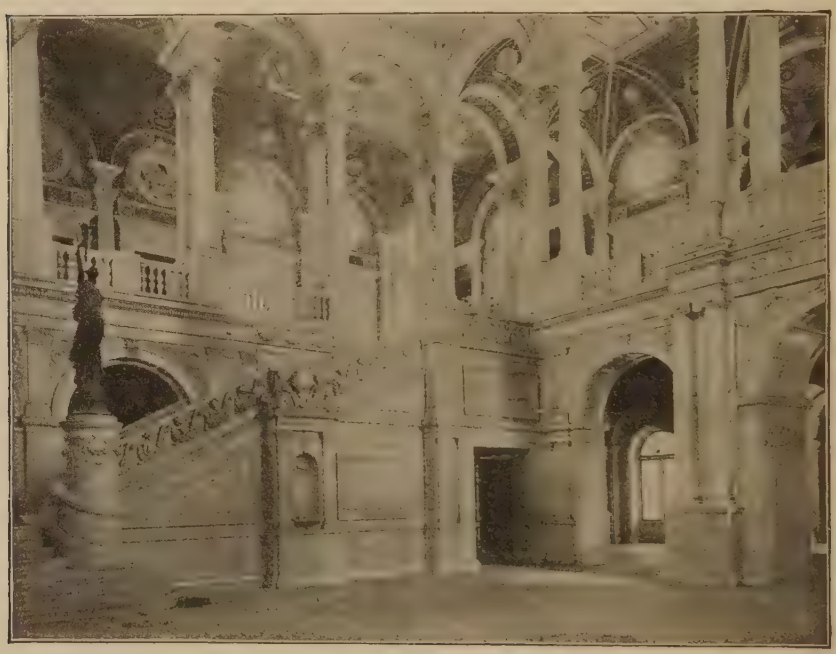
manuscript in the original numbers two hundred and seventy pages, and the only title which it bears is "Of Plimouth Plantation." It was written by William Bradford, one of the passengers on the *Mayflower*, and the second governor of the colony of Massachusetts. Cotton Mather says of him: "He was a person for study as well as action; and hence, notwithstanding the difficulties through which he passed in his youth, he attained unto a notable skill in languages;



THE NEW CONGRESSIONAL LIBRARY—ENTRANCE HALL

the Dutch tongue was almost as vernacular to him as the English; the French tongue he could also manage; the Latin and Greek he had mastered, but the Hebrew he most of all studied. But the crown of all was his holy, prayerful, watchful, and fruitful walk with God, wherein he was very exemplary." He was born on March 19, 1588, and died on May 9, 1657.

Period Covered

The "History of the Plymouth Plantation" covers the period from 1602 to 1646, and Bradford's work, as will be noted, is improperly called the "Log of the *Mayflower*." He thus opens his history:

"And first of ye occasion and indusments thereunto: the which that I may truly unfold, I must begine at ye very roote & rise of ye

same The which I shall endevor to manefest in a plaine stile, with singuler regard unto ye simple trueth in all things, at least as near as my slender judgements can attaine the same." PERIOD VII — THE NEW UNITED STATES

Following this is an account of the rise and religious ideas of the people with whom Bradford cast his lot, their removal to Holland, their stay there, and their decision to seek a home in the New World. He tells of the start of the *Speedwell* and the *Mayflower*, the return of the former and the voyage of the latter. The ninth chapter describes "their voyage and how they passed ye sea & of their safe arrivale at Cape Codd." Only a few pages are devoted to an account of the voyage of the *Mayflower*.

Another common error is the impression that the "Log" was almost unknown. The New England historians drew freely upon it, Hutchinson having used it as late as 1767. While in the hands of Prince, another historian, in 1758, it was deposited in the New England Library in the tower of the Old South Church, which was used by the British soldiers as a riding-school during their occupancy of Boston. When they left they took the manuscript with them, and also Governor Bradford's letter-book, most of which was destroyed. It was believed that "Bradford's History of the Plymouth Plantation" had shared this fate; but when, in 1846, Dr. Samuel Wilberforce then Lord Bishop of Oxford, published his history of the Protestant Episcopal Church in America, a number of New England scholars recognized certain portions as extracts from the Bradford manuscripts. A correspondence with the bishop of London followed, and the long-lost "Log of the *Mayflower*" was once more brought to light. It was copied by permission, and the whole history published in 1856, with copious annotations. **Previously Published**